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# REVIEWS.

## CAVOUR.\*

ANALYSE greatness, popularly so called, reduce it to its primal elements, test it in the crucible of true philosophy, and every specimen of it will be found to be adulterated—not many grains of pure gold will be discovered. It is almost ludicrous to observe that after eighteen hundred years of Christianity greatness is made up of the same ingredients which formed its component parts in the days of Alexander. The virtue of great men is the sin by which the angels fell; the greatest hero is the greatest warrior; the greatest statesman is he who removes his neighbour's landmark. Nevertheless, a great man, as most men count greatness, was Camillo Benso di Cavour. Rome may have lost her breed of noble bloods; the long tyranny of men who have (or ought to have) no children may have emasculated the sons and corrupted the daughters of the Eternal City, but Italy is not wholly degenerate; the age is not shamed which can boast amongst its representatives Charles Albert, Victor Emmanuel, Garibaldi, and Cavour. And Cavour was the greatest of them all. Charles Albert was mistimed; he was a chivalrous knight, without fear and without reproach, the soul of honour, and the Bayard of his day, but unfitted to his times. His piety, which amounted almost to bigotry, and his bravery, which reached almost to rashness, would have made him a Saint Louis amongst the Crusaders; but, as it was, he died in exile, more wondered at than admired, more pitied than lamented. To Victor Emmanuel we think Mr. Dicey does no more than justice when he says that to him will be allotted no low place when "the future historian of the rise and growth of the Italian kingdom will be able to assign to each of the characters in that great epoch his due place in the Pantheon of history." "To avenge Novara and his father's fate, to drive the foreigner out of Italy, and to become the first of Italian princes, was the lesson his faith, and life, and heart alike had taught him. Italy owes almost as much to the dogged perseverance with which Victor Emmanuel held that faith of his, as it does to the genius of Cavour. Both were alike needed for the work; alone, either would have remained powerless." The royal trooper, unless report use him shamefully, can hardly be said to be a "clayver" man, or a religious enthusiast, or even a stern moralist, but he is determined and faithful as a bull-dog; his honesty entitles him, according to the poet, to be considered a noble work of God; and a prince in whom you can put your trust is, according to the Psalmist (and if David wrote the 146th Psalm, he was certainly an authority upon the subject), a very wonderful phenomenon. Garibaldi is a man of a different stamp; quite as honest and quite as brave, but devoid of personal ambition; it is his grand simplicity which recommends him to our hearts, and his pure love of country which commands our admiration; and one cannot but rejoice at the good fortune which has befriended him, and enabled him to be inscribed on the scroll of fame as one among those who have struck off their country's chains, rather than among those

who have been hanged as filibusters: for to the latter fate we are very much afraid he would, under certain circumstances, have been exposed. As a hero, he stands exalted above all his contemporaries; but as a man of genius—though he certainly has genius—he bears about the same relation to Cavour as the driver of an ordinary train to the inventor of the steam-engine. At a very early period in his career, Cavour had set before himself an object, to the attainment of which he thenceforward devoted all his talents and all his energies. For it he sacrificed friendships, endured enmities, and exposed his life without hesitation. The friend that withstood him he thrust aside with regret, the foe that opposed him he cut down without compunction. He became all things to all men, if by any means he might gain his end. That is, he belonged to no particular party: he used the Right, the Left, and the Centre, if not equally, with equal readiness for his purpose. One day, men called him a revolutionist; the next, a reactionist; the day after, a constitutionalist. But little he recked what men called him: it was not a name for which he strove, but a reality. That reality he obtained, and died; he created the kingdom which had been the dream of his life, and scarcely had his great work been accomplished when he found that his hour was come, and the master he had served so well must part with him for ever. But he had carried out his programme, he had gained the victory. It was the first Minister of Italy that lay in the grasp of death, and it was the first King of Italy that was sobbing by his bedside. "L'Italia sarà!" cried Victor Emmanuel, as he shook his sword towards the Austrian camp, after the fatal battle of Novara; and doubtless he was thinking, as he wept over the dying Minister, to whom he was indebted for the fulfilment of his vow.

What share, if any, the desire of personal renown had in urging Cavour to the goal of his ambition, it is perhaps scarcely necessary to inquire. There is usually a considerable amount of selfishness at the bottom of every man's conduct; but the following letter to the Marchioness Barollo would justify one in assuming that the noble dead was not altogether unmindful of self. He was just twenty-four years of age when he wrote—

"Je vous remercie, Madame la Marquise, pour l'intérêt que vous prenez à ma disgrâce; mais croyez-le bien, je ferai tout de même ma carrière. J'ai beaucoup d'ambition, une ambition énorme; et lorsque je serai Ministre, j'espère que je la justifierai: puisque dans mes rêves je me vois déjà Ministre du Royaume d'Italie."

We have preferred giving the original of this note rather than Mr. Dicey's translation, as he has for some reason which we cannot surmise chosen to render "ma disgrâce" by "my misfortunes," though he distinctly tells us himself that the allusion is to young Cavour's "disgrace at Court;" besides which, most people nowadays understand sufficient French to enable them to see the purport of a simple note in that language. It can hardly be expected that Mr. Dicey should be able to tell us much more than is already known of the great man whose sudden death so short a time since cast a gloom over the whole of Europe; but he has lived some time at Turin, he has conversed with persons who knew the great statesman well, so that we may trust pretty safely to his accuracy, and his *Rome in 1860* has proved that he is an honest chronicler and a sensible man. "Of such sources," he says, "of private information as were open to me, I have thankfully availed myself. Some

experience of Italy, however, has taught me to place little confidence in second-hand reports about Cavour's confidential opinions. In all cases I have preferred public to private information, and what my book has thus lost in novelty, I trust it has gained in truth." What is meant by "public information" we do not quite comprehend; but we take it that our author would have us to infer thereby that he has consulted such works as the *Opere Politico-Economiche del Conte Camillo Benso di Cavour*, published in 1857, and *Camillo Benso di Cavour, per Roggero Bonghi*, published quite recently; indeed, to the latter we have more than one reference made; and it is of course an advantage to those who do not read Italian that the important parts of those works should be culled, prepared, and set before them by so able a hand as Mr. Dicey. Mr. Dicey professes to give a memoir of the public not of the private man, and he says, "It is our English rule, and to my mind a very right rule, to dwell little in political biographies upon what is, strictly speaking, private character." It may be so; but our experience of the curiosity of mankind is that they would much rather see a little of the interior life of great men, hear a few anecdotes which show that they were in matters of scandal and so forth just as other men are, get a glimpse of the skeleton that each kept in his cupboard, discover the name of the woman who was, of course, (if there be any truth in proverbial sayings,) at the bottom of everything, and have exposed to their view all the motive springs by which their antics were regulated, than peruse the most skilfully arranged, accurately composed, and beautifully written record of all their public actions; particularly when the latter have been regularly reported and commented upon in the daily newspapers. Moreover, we apprehend and we beg pardon of all biographers if we are wrong in our apprehension, that they, generally speaking, say all they know about the private lives of their subjects (unless they are personal friends whose weaknesses they would spare), and only abstain from a very full and particular account on the very sufficient grounds of total ignorance. We are far from wishing to exclude Mr. Dicey from the exceptions to this rule; we dare say "he could do as he would;" but he is loath to depart from what he considers the beaten path of political biography, and we must therefore take what scanty scraps he may think proper to give us touching the private life and character of him whom he has undertaken to depict, and be thankful. To all, then, who believe in "blood," and hold that a descendant, however distant, of a stable-boy of William the Conqueror must necessarily be a person of superior gifts to the son of even a cab proprietor of the present day, it will be gratifying to know that "the Benzi—for that is the real name of the Cavour family—are among the oldest of the noble houses of Piedmont." They date, not from the creation, but from the twelfth century. "In the eighteenth century Michele Benso, Knight of the Order of the Annunciazione, was raised to the rank of Marquis, taking the title of his Marquisate from the little village of Cavour, situated in the province of Pignerolo." Hence the family became known as the Cavour. Camillo Benso, the subject of this memoir, was the second son of the Marquis Michele Giuseppe. He was baptized on the 10th August, 1810, and was supported at the font in the arms of the beautiful Pauline, sister of Napoleon the Great. Such were the auspices of his birth; and at his death the events of his fleeting moments were telegraphed hour by hour to the man to whom he owed, and paid, so much, and

\* *Cavour: a Memoir.* By Edward Dicey. (Macmillan.)

that man was Napoleon the Little. As he began life, so he ended; in body or in spirit a Buonaparte was present at the alpha and at the omega of his existence. Of Cavour's childhood and youth, Mr. Dicey tells us, little is known; first he had a tutor, the Abbé Frezet, a Savoyard priest, "who died little more than a year ago. At an early age he was sent to the military academy of Turin, and, when ten years old, was appointed page to Charles Albert, then Prince of Savoy-Carignan." But he did not "give satisfaction," and was soon sent back to the academy, "glad," as he is reported to have said, "he had thrown off his pack-saddle." He appears to have excited some attention amongst his schoolfellows, never played, and "never seemed to work," though "he was always reading, not works of fiction, but papers, political treatises, and histories. He paid no particular attention to his lessons, and troubled himself very little about them; but when the examinations came round he appeared to grasp all he was required to learn without an effort, and surpassed his competitors easily." Mathematics appear to have been his *forte*, and "probably in consequence of this taste, he obtained, at his own request, a commission in the Engineers." The expression of liberal opinions in his new capacity did not recommend him to the authorities; and this circumstance, combined with a natural distaste for the army, induced his father to acquiesce in his resignation of his commission. He did not, however, with all his liberal bias, enter into any of the secret societies; he wished to improve the government of his country by open, constitutional means; he had no sympathy with Mazzini and his brood; he had no faith in insurrections; no fellow-feeling with cut-throats and bravos; no inclination for curing tyranny by the strong remedy of murder; no belief in the efficacy of the dagger; no hope in the bomb-shells that take effect on the wrong persons, and bring Harmodius and Aristogiton to the guillotine. Ten years he now spent abroad, in France, in Switzerland, and in England. "His visits to England," Mr. Dicey tells us, "were never of long duration, and his knowledge of English life and feeling was rather derived from reading than from personal observation." We have some recollection of having read elsewhere that Cavour made very careful researches into English life and feeling; and a writer in the *Quarterly*, who seems well informed, certainly told his readers that Cavour, not at this period, but subsequently, investigated in company with a detective all the low haunts in London, that he might carry away from the evidence of his own eyes correct notions of the state of things in the less reputable quarters of our city; and we are led to suppose, perhaps unintentionally, by the same writer, that he had studied with the same care the other portions of our society. However, in some way or other, he became afflicted with a disease called by his countrymen Anglomania; he was convinced that there was nothing in the world like our institutions for bringing a nation to that awful condition which precedes, according to Continental and American prophets, a speedy downfall, and he was determined to try whether he could not by similar means reduce his own country to a similar state of unexampled prosperity. Mr. Dicey combats the opinion, very generally held, that Cavour "during his absence from Italy" "acquired considerable reputation by his writings." He himself believes that Cavour's "early reviews were all published during the first years after his return from Italy." He gives a list, with the dates (the earliest being 1843), of "the only ones which have been republished in the collected edition of his writings," and amongst

them is one on Communism, from which he gives copious quotations. It is beyond our province to criticize it: we may, however, be permitted to remark, in passing, that all essays upon that subject appear to us to be waste of time. It is all very well to talk learnedly and ingeniously about "the right of property" and the "right of self-preservation," and to argue as to what should or should not be done "when wretched Hindoos may be dying in the pangs of starvation at the doors of the very building where English officers are enjoying at the mess-table a luxurious and plentiful repast." The whole question was settled some two thousand years ago, when a man was told to love his neighbour as himself. Of course that sort of thing is a mere joke, and so any one who expects anybody to act upon it must be a person of exceedingly sanguine temperament. Yet it is the only solution: and Cavour was far too practical a man to adopt that *in toto*, but he does partially: "The philosopher and the political economist," he says, "may easily refute in their studies the errors of communism; but their labour will be in vain unless all honest men, putting into practice the great principle of universal benevolence, act upon the hearts of mankind as science acts upon the mind." We pass over many years of Cavour's life; we say nothing of his well-known connection with the *Risorgimento*, his labours in the cause of electoral law, his expressed dislike to universal suffrage, which, however, he was subsequently in the matter of annexation forced to acknowledge, "with that strange chuckle of his, half cynical, half good-natured," to be "a capital invention," and stopping only at the account of the Campaign of 1848, to give Mr. Dicey his due meed of praise for the justice which he does to the bravery of the Austrians, retreating inch by inch, and dying "with a courage worthy of a nobler cause," we hurry on to the events which succeeded the defeat of Novara. In 1850, Cavour "pronounced himself decidedly on the popular side," in the case of "the discussions on the *Foro Ecclesiastico*." In the autumn which followed the passing of the measure on the *Foro Ecclesiastico*, whereby "ecclesiastical courts and other clerical immunities" were annulled, and the clergy rendered "amenable, in civil matters, to the common law," died Santa Rosa, "unconfessed and unsolved." "He was one of the ministers who had proposed the measure, and the priest of his parish, by the orders of the Archbishop of Turin, refused him extreme unction, unless he solemnly expressed his repentance for the part he had taken against the Church." But he was staunch; and the vacancy which his death made was worthily filled by the equally resolute Cavour. The King gave his consent to the appointment, remarking, "I have no objection; but mark my words—the man will turn every one of you out before long." The King was a better prophet than Dr. Cumming. The first great event of Cavour's premiership was the passing of the great measure of Clerical Reform known as the "Legge Rattazziana." Every attempt was made by the clergy to work upon the King's mind, that this measure might be thwarted; and what moral coercion they brought to bear may be conceived when we read, that "twice the discussion of the Chambers had to be adjourned for the funerals of members of the royal family: within one month, the Queen-mother, the Queen of Sardinia, and the King's only and beloved brother, the Duke of Genoa, died suddenly and strangely." The King was inclined to give way, but the ministry resigned; and ultimately the measure received the royal signature. The

following paragraph will not here be out of place: it is of itself, if true (and Mr. Dicey's frankness is such that he would have mentioned any doubts about it), sufficient to throw discredit upon the statement that Cavour, in his last moments, telegraphed to Rome for absolution:—

"Since Cavour's death a strange incident has become known to me in connection with this measure. When the discussion was at its height, Cavour told a private friend of his, that, mindful of Santa Rosa's fate, he had made arrangements with a priest whom he could trust, so that he might rely on the last sacraments being administered to him in the case of death. Whether this forethought was due to a conviction, that the fact of his dying unabsolved, would be an injury to the cause for which he lived, or whether it was owing to some deeper and more personal feeling, is one of those mysteries, which, perhaps, he himself could scarce have explained fully. It is certain that when he died, this priest, the now well-known Fra Giacomo, was not wanting to the promise given."

Mr. Dicey gives a very correct (we think) and readable account of Cavour's great master-stroke of policy in concluding "a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance with France and England;" he dwells with not more than proper stress upon the advantages which accrued to Sardinia from the victory of the Tchernaya, and he describes in few but sufficient words the matters connected with the Congress of Paris and "the famous Memorandum addressed to France and England at the close of the Congress," wherein "it was officially announced to Europe that the existence of the free state of Sardinia was incompatible with the maintenance of the Austrian dominion in Italy." The sequel is still in everybody's memory: the chivalry of the French Emperor; the war for an idea; the Pyrrhic victories of Magenta and Solferino; the peace of Villafranca, and the despair of Cavour; the non-liberation of Italy from the Alps to the Adriatic; and the gradual development of the "idea" into an indemnity of sixty millions of francs, and the provinces of Nice and Savoy. With respect to the cession of these two provinces Mr. Dicey has a great deal to say,—not so much in justification, he seems to hint, as in explanation of Cavour's policy. He says, at page 192:—

"With regard to the verbal dishonesty, of which Cavour used to be accused, on account of his famous declaration that there was no intention of ceding Nice and Savoy, the justification is a simple one. When the Emperor Napoleon made peace at Villa Franca, he was unable to fulfil the prospects, he had held out at Plombières, of ceding all the Austrian dominions in Italy to Sardinia; and on surrendering this prospect, he gave up, at the same time, his claim to the execution of the other side of the contract, which consisted in the cession of Nice and Savoy. It was only when Sardinia became a powerful state, by the annexation of Central Italy, that he claimed the fulfilment of the original contract; and, therefore, at the date of Cavour's declaration, he spoke the truth, or at least as much of the truth, as the diplomatic code of morals is understood to require."

We cannot but think this rather a lame defence, or the diplomatic code of morals is even laxer than we imagined: and we cannot see at all the force of the following remarks:—

"Moreover, in the event of the Empire being overthrown, and succeeded by a government hostile to Italy, like that of the Bourbons or the Orleanists, it was of immense importance to bind France to the maintenance of the Imperial policy. France holds Nice and Savoy, as a material guarantee for the maintenance of the Italian kingdom; and, by the cession of these provinces, the French alliance was secured definitively."



Mr. Dicey must have a very low opinion of the Bourbons and Orleanists. Garibaldi, it is quite clear, is no great favourite of Mr. Dicey, and he seems to be conscious that he is rather prejudiced against him, as will appear from this:—

"After all, as it was often my lot to hear remarked during those days in Naples, if the Garibaldian volunteers invaded the Two Sicilies for the sake of pay and promotion, they were not heroes, whatever else they may have been. If, on the other hand, they were, as I believe, inspired with a true sense of patriotic duty, then the less indiscreet friends say about the inadequacy of the reward paid to patriotism, the better for the credit of the patriots."

"I have perhaps spoken hardly of Garibaldi. I believe that I have spoken truly, but I cannot forget that when every town in Italy was grieving for Cavour's death, when all enmities were for the moment laid aside in the presence of the open grave, when even the Austrian and Ultramontane papers paid their tribute of praise to one whom, with all his faults, they called the greatest son of Italy, there was one place alone, from which was heard no utterance of sorrow, no expression of respect, no word even of regret, and that was from—Caprena."

We beg to give our most complete assent to the remarks upon the Garibaldian volunteers, and further to express our humble opinion that, however good a shot a gentleman may be, he has no business to interfere in quarrels with which he has no concern, and shoot down his fellow-creatures like wild-fowl: it may be very good target practice, but it looks bloodthirsty. If his necessities oblige him to take service in a foreign army, there may be some excuse for him; but a voluntary man-slayer is a sort of unpaid executioner.

There is another point on which Mr. Dicey should be heard: he says:—

"From reasons, which I need not enter into, foreign politicians, and a considerable party even in Italy itself, are always dwelling on the differences and contrasts between the various provinces of Italy. It is true that the most careless of observers, in travelling from north to south, can scarce fail to notice that the Piedmontese and the Sicilian, to take the two extreme cases, are widely different from each other in race, character, and language. The observation is a correct and important one enough, but when from this observation you draw the further conclusion that Italy is composed of distinct races and nations, you are arguing without grounds. I defy any one to show where the Northern Italian race ends, or where the Southern begins. The Piedmontese differs from the Lombard, the Lombard from the Tuscan, the Tuscan from the Roman, the Roman from the Neapolitan, and the Neapolitan from the Sicilian; but the degree or shade of difference is much the same in each instance. And even if you take the two extremes, and jump over the intermediate steps, the Piedmontese is not more different from the Sicilian than the French Flamand of Lille is from the Provençal of Marseilles, than the Spaniard of the Pyrenees is from the Spaniard of Granada; less so, certainly, than the Scotch peasant is from the Cornish miner. On the other hand, the features common to all parts of Italy are undeniable. From Susa to Syracuse, there is but one written language, and though dialects may differ, in no part of Italy is there such a thing as a local literature, or even a local newspaper written in the local *patois*. Throughout Italy there is one literature, one religion, and for the educated classes one spoken language. As for the local jealousies and traditions of which we hear so constantly, I can only say, that in any part of Italy, the proposal to raise a monument commemorating a victory which one Italian State did or did not win over another, I forget how many centuries ago, would be received with simple ridicule, and therefore it is not for a subject of the United Kingdom to dwell much upon such jealousies."

Northern and Southern Italians, in fact, are

apparently as incapable of a line of demarcation as Chatham and Rochester, with respect to which it is said that not even natives know where one begins and the other leaves off.

And now, without further verbiage, we commend to the notice of the public a very praiseworthy effort to prolong beyond the six months accorded by Hamlet the memory of a great man.

#### CHRONICLES OF THE ISLE OF MAN.\*

THE study of the ancient records of the Scandinavian races, who, at an early period, spread themselves over the north-west of Europe, and peopled Sweden and Norway, Denmark, the Faeroe Islands, and Iceland, has, within recent years, thrown a remarkable light over the history of a people who, not a century ago, were all but universally looked upon as the most rude and uncivilized of savages. It has shown, among other things, that at a time when there was little enough, even in the favoured South, deserving the name of literature, there was a rich mine of poetry among the Northern races, handed down, in most instances, from mouth to mouth, yet preserved with singular truthfulness through many centuries, together with a large amount of real history, whose existence even had never been expected by the historians of the middle and later ages. To the preservation of the Sagas we owe not only a clear and evidently historical narrative of the colonization of Iceland, and of numerous places along the coast of Scotland and Ireland, but what is still more remarkable, and, we may add, still less anticipated, an account of the discovery of America three or four centuries before the adventurous voyage of Columbus. It would be out of place here to speculate how far Columbus was himself influenced by stories he may have heard from seamen who had met the Icelanders of his day in the ports of Ireland or Bristol; nor do we think it in the least detracts from his reputation should he have gained, as many have thought, something more than a mere inkling of that far West which his courage and perseverance first made available to European enterprise. It is enough that he made practical the dreams that, ere his time, had been floating in the minds of many; it may or may not be that he had better reasons than others for the faith that was in him. Only let it not be forgotten that, in the long unknown Sagas, we have clear and unquestionable (because astronomical) evidence that Viking-colonists had penetrated to where Charleston and Washington now stand—moreover, had given to the new lands they had discovered names we can even now recognize as singularly expressive of the character of the new country, and therefore confirming, independently, the truth of the narrative.

We now turn to the work to which we wish at present to call attention, which, though not itself a Saga, partakes in some degree of the nature of those works. It is a chronicle of the Island of Man and the Sudreys (that is, the islands south of the Orkneys). It is known to exist in only one manuscript, in the Cottonian Library at the British Museum, and is written for the greater part in the character common to the latter half of the thirteenth century. The first portion of it finishes with the year 1257, when another handwriting commences; hence we may fairly conclude that it was begun some time previous to that period, and that the words occurring in it, "*hec sicut ab ore*

*ejus didicimus scripsimus*," are the words of the author himself, and not copied by him from another record. As several subsequent handwritings may be detected in the later entries, it would seem that the Chronicle has been successively continued from 1257 by contemporary writers, though languidly and without any pretension to completeness. The principal author or compiler was certainly a monk of Russin Abbey, many of the entries in the Chronicle showing a peculiar interest in whatever more especially concerned that ecclesiastical edifice. Thus the foundations of the Abbeys of Savigny and Furness, both of which were directly connected with Russin, are recorded, together with the names of many illustrious persons buried within its precincts. The date of the dedication of the church at Russin, and its subsequent spoliation, are also noticed; the writer adding, in the latter case, that the man who fled from the persecutions of Harold (A.D. 1249–50) came to Russin, and that he took down his narrative from his mouth. It is also clear, from the account of the boundaries of the land belonging to the monastery, that the book was in its possession, at least at the time when the appendix was drawn up.

On comparing the framework of this Chronicle, it would seem equally certain, that it has been constructed on the model of the Chronicle of Mailros (Melrose), and that this latter work has been the source from which, though not immediately, the principal author has taken many statements of general interest, among which he has inserted those stray original records, which he had in store, about the Isle of Man. At the same time, it is no less evident, from the occurrence of many chronological errors, that the Chronicle of Melrose was not by any means the immediate source of the present Chronicle; and further, that this fragment was, in some degree, connected with another record of the same period, the Chronicle of Lanercost, though the latter was arranged (at least into its present shape) at a period considerably later. Indeed, the general conclusion we arrive at with regard to the annals of all the Abbeys along the Scotch-English frontier is this—that they have been formed upon the model of the Chronicle of Melrose, many copies of which, more or less perfect, are known to have been in circulation (see Bannatyne ed. p. 6).

It is curious that this Chronicle, or rather fragment of a Chronicle of the Kings of Man, though long since known to exist, has never till now met with a competent editor; we may therefore rejoice that a work so important, historically, has fallen into hands so able as those of Dr. Munch. Camden himself led the way in publishing a portion of it in his *Britannia* (Lond. 1587), but, for what reason is not clear, omitted the most interesting part of it. Camden's publication was reproduced in other works, as the *Geographia Blauviana*, and Langebeck's *Scriptores Rerum Danicarum*, till at length a more complete edition was given to the world by Johnstone in his *Antiquitates Celto-Normannicæ*, though little can be said for that edition or its editor. Our readers will probably not estimate very highly an editor who reads "*probris*" for "*presbyteris*," and who substitutes "*Ricardus*," King of England, for "*Johannes*;" at the same time giving the date A.D. 1210, which of right belongs to the latter monarch.

We may, therefore, tender our best thanks to Dr. Munch, who has first edited this little work as it deserves to be edited, and who has taken great pains to collect, in a body of very learned notes, every fact which can be made to bear even remotely on its illustration.

\* *Chronica Regum Mannie et Insularum*. Edited by P. A. Munch. (Christiania)

More than this, we may, we think, justly congratulate him on the remarkable mastery he has obtained over the English language, which he writes more purely and with fewer errors of importance than many of our own contemporary writers. He need have made no apology in his preface for adopting a tongue not his native one, though he speaks truly enough when he says, that while all of his own countrymen who take an interest in such matters are familiar with the English language, Norse, on the other hand, is but little understood in England.

It is hard to select from the volume before us any points that are more especially deserving of notice, but we may mention one interesting fact, which is proved beyond a shadow of doubt by the notes appended to it; viz. the intimate connection which must have existed in very early times between Scandinavia and the north-western districts of England, and especially between it and Cumberland and Westmoreland. Thus it is certain that though the bulk of the population of the western and southern island was unquestionably Gaelic or Celtic (the two titles or names being convertible), and though the predominant language of all this part of the country was decidedly Gaelic, still the Norse dialect must have been quite familiar with the bulk of the population. Thus the greater part of the islands have Gaelic names, at the same time that some even of the larger have Norwegian ones; or, in other words, their original form still shining through the alterations of later days is Norwegian. Thus, for instance, Lewis is the Norse *Ljodhus* (called in this chronicle *Leodus*). Again, Fladda, Sanda, Watersa, Eriksa, are no doubt originally, Flatey, Sandey, Vatnsey, Eiriksey; so Skye is Skid, Ulva is Ulf-ey (or Wolf's Island), Staffa, Staffey (the Land of Staves, so called from its basaltic pillars), Jura, probably Diura (the island of Deer). Thus we find the name Calve (káfr, calf) affixed to the name of the larger island adjacent to it (of which it is said to be the "calf," as in Mylarkáfr, the Calf of Mull). So also Norwegian names of some places still existing may be detected on more accurate investigation: as *Cornbust*, *Kirkbust*, evidently originally Kornbustadr and Kirkjubustadr (corn abode, church abode), names for the most part still found in Norway, and, what is more to the point, still abridged in the vernacular tongue in a manner precisely similar.

When we turn to Man itself, we find the same thing prevailing, though the greater part of the population must always have been of Celtic origin; yet for all this, many of the local names are no less evidently Norse—thus we find Snefell, the highest peak, Dalby, Fleshwick, Wardfell, Perwick, Strandhall, Egness, Kennay, Sulby, Ramsay; all of which are purely Norwegian. Moreover we notice that several places had double names, as for example, Kirk Michael—what in this Chronicle bears also the names of Villa Thorkel (or Thorkels bæ). Last, not least, as an evidence of a former Norse occupation of Man, we may cite the numerous Runic inscriptions in the Norse language still preserved there, and which are the more curious as proving to the scholar, from the utter carelessness of their language and orthography, that the language spoken there had lost much of its purity, owing to the strong influence of the Celtic population, the names, too, occurring in these ancient inscriptions being themselves generally one-half Gaelic.

What, also, is true of Man and the north-western parts of Scotland, is shown also, on careful investigation, to be true of Cumberland and Westmoreland. Our readers may not,

perhaps, be prepared for what is, however, manifest even now, viz., the extensive occurrence in the Lake Districts, of names purely Norwegian. Thus we meet with Natland, Morland, Birkthwaite, Mickethwaite, Seathwaite, Blea Fell, Dun Fell, Hest Fell, &c., all of which are exactly the Norwegian Natland, Morland, Birkethveit, Myklethveit, Siøthveit, Bleefjeld, Dunfjeld, Hestfjeld; while, in the present and ordinary dialect of the people, we meet with the following purely Norwegian words, as *bain* (i.e. beirn), straight; *batten* (i.e. batna, to improve or thrive); *force* (i.e. fors), the common name for a waterfall; *gowpen* (i.e. gaupn), a handful, &c.

In conclusion we may add, that Dr. Munch has availed himself of a recent residence at Rome, and has obtained from the archives of the Vatican copies of very curious original letters from the See of Rome addressed to different Bishops of Man and places adjacent on the mainland, which he has published in an Appendix. These alone would render his little work a valuable addition to our historical knowledge of the North.

#### BURGON ON INSPIRATION AND INTERPRETATION.\*

THIS is one of those numerous works which have been called into existence by the *Essays and Reviews*. If, however, it had been simply controversial, we should, with every feeling of respect, have declined to notice it. We believe that neither readers nor reviewers are desirous of prolonging the era of polemical discussion. Mr. Burgon's work has, however, some remarkable merits of its own in substantive and constructive teaching. We shall therefore at once proceed to a very brief mention of Mr. Burgon's views on Inspiration and Interpretation. We shall only permit ourselves one remark before finally ignoring the controversial aspect of these pages. When a man's religious feelings have been deeply outraged, we have no wish to speak with harshness of the measure of righteous indignation with which he proceeds to vindicate them. We have a positive feeling of respect for honest and fearless invective. But we cannot help feeling a regret, as in the present instance, when this assumes the shape of bad temper and personality. Mr. Burgon thanks God that the cold shade of unbelief has never passed over his spirit. It is probably a matter for which he should be deeply thankful, in being preserved from much disquiet and unhappiness. But probably this is a circumstance which has disqualified him for dealing, with sympathy and due understanding, with the doubts of others, and has imported into his pages a bitterness of feeling which it is possible that he himself may some day disapprove.

To the volume itself we feel disposed to attach a very high degree of value. Having read it ourselves with the deepest interest, we recommend it with pleasure to others, in the hope that they may obtain for themselves the enjoyment of a similar advantage. It is distinguished by an earnestness that often rises into eloquence, by a thoughtfulness indicative of mental culture, and by a rare learning made popularly available. Although, as Mr. Burgon himself hastens to point out to us, the method is inexact and the shape of the work unsatisfactory, it will probably be found more satisfying

\* *Inspiration and Interpretation; Seven Sermons preached before the University of Oxford; with preliminary remarks. By the Rev. John William Burgon, M.A., Fellow of Oriel. (J. H. and James Parker.)*

than more formal treatises. We shall rapidly indicate his views, (1) on Inspiration; (2) on Interpretation. There is some difficulty in doing so, both on account of the complex form of the volume, and the necessity of unravelling them from their polemical context.

1. Differing from Mr. Jowett's celebrated assertion, the Bible is *not* to be studied like any other book. Before entering on the question of Inspiration, eight characteristics are enumerated in which it is quite unlike any other book in the world. On Inspiration itself he entertains none of those medium views that characterize many of our fashionable theologians. Dr. Temple's language respecting the Four Evangelists, not without substantial justice, is paraphrased into familiar language thus:—"You are four highly respectable characters, no doubt; and you *mean* well. But it cannot be expected that persons of your condition in life should have described so many intricate transactions so minutely without making blunders. I do not say it unkindly. I often make blunders myself, I who have 'a power of discrimination between different kinds of truth' unknown to the Apostolic age!" Mr. Burgon avows the doctrine of Plenary Inspiration to the widest extent. He utterly denies that the Bible contains inconsistencies, mis-statements, slips of memory. He maintains that every discrepancy, *did we know all the facts*, could be reconciled with the truth. He thinks that this whole class of difficulties is susceptible of elimination. Take an instance of such an imaginary difficulty. St. John says that Pilate sat in judgment about the ninth hour, whereas St. Mark says that he was crucified about the third hour. The Patristic writers, at an age when Biblical science, properly speaking, did not exist, resorted to the simple expedient of mutilating the text. It is now curiously ascertained that in the Patriarchate of Ephesus the hours were not computed after the Jewish method, but precisely according to our English method. The difficulty vanishes. Other instances are adduced where explanation is possible. Other instances still remain, so far as we can see, inexplicable. Mr. Burgon adds, that complete knowledge would vindicate the claim of complete accuracy. Every book of the Bible is inspired alike, and is inspired entirely; books, sentences, words, syllables, letters. The state of the text is not ignored, but "is the dead poet responsible for the clumsiness of him who transcribes his copy, or for the carelessness of the apprentice in the painter's attic?" The personality of the writer is not ignored, but these human instruments were fabricated one and all by the hands of the same Divine Artist. In connection with this Mr. Burgon is directly against Mr. Kingsley on the question, "Why should we pray for fair weather?" He maintains that in the present state of geological science it is impossible to decide against the accuracy of the first chapters of Genesis. The Bible is not inspired partly less, partly more, but is "absolute, faultless, unerring, supreme."

2. Interpretation is defined "the discovery of the method and meaning of Holy Scripture." Critical labours on the text and grammatical expositions of the force of words are external to Interpretation proper. Mr. Burgon then proceeds to discuss the *principle* on which interpretation ought to be conducted. In this are involved the questions so much discussed of late, Ought Scripture to be interpreted like any other book? Has Scripture only one meaning, or more? Mr. Burgon's argument runs thus:—See how Scripture interprets Scripture, and then you will obtain the principle of Interpretation. Look at the cases where St. Mat-



threw interprets the ancient Scriptures in his Gospel, and St. Paul in his Epistles. They give a meaning to the ancient letter which to us is simply astonishing. "The very narrative itself seems to overflow with mysterious purpose." Unless the Divine writer had so taught us, who would have thought that the narrative of Sarah and Agar was an allegory. The typical hypothesis is thus fully asserted. The whole clue of the argument is furnished by the simple consideration that the Bible is the work of God. It is fashionable and "the proper thing" to quote Bishop Butler, and at this point Mr. Burgon does not fail to do so, and to much purpose.

"If one knew a person to be the sole author of a book, and were certainly assured that one knew the whole of what was intended by it, one would be assured that one knew the whole meaning of that book. But if one knew a person to have compiled a book out of memoirs which he received from another of vastly superior knowledge in the subject of it, especially if full of great intricacies and difficulties, it would in nowise follow that one knew the whole meaning of the book from knowing the whole meaning of the compiler. To say then that the Scriptures can have no other or farther meaning than those others thought or had who first recited or wrote them is evidently saying that those persons were the original, proper, and sole authors of these books, i.e. that they were not inspired; which is absurd, whilst the authority of these books is under examination."

So far Bishop Butler: Mr. Burgon does not fail to expand Butler's argument. There may have been a series of adumbrations throughout the Bible. The inspired writers themselves could not have known all the wondrous qualities of the word they delivered. Arguing analogically, a messenger often knows comparatively little of the message with which he is entrusted. Mr. Burgon applies these considerations to various important subjects, e.g., the doctrine of arbitrary Scriptural accommodation. We regret that our limits preclude us from giving anything like an adequate idea of the scope of this able and well-timed work.

#### CARDINAL JULIAN.\*

THIS is a valuable contribution towards a due understanding of the age of the Councils, which is the best preparation for a right understanding of the age of the Reformation. Mr. Jenkins is one of those scholars who have industriously tracked the footsteps of Gibbon, giving full references where they only found allusions, and ample details where they discovered but the hasty sketch. Dealing with multitudinous events, and the most crowded procession that ever peopled historic pages, Gibbon's bold generalization must sometimes be inaccurate, and his estimate of mixed characters at fault; yet, upon the whole, when his prejudices against religion are not concerned, it is wise to acquiesce in the candour and good sense of his conclusions. When Cardinal Julian passed over from the interests of the Council to the interests of the Pope, Gibbon, remembering the selfishness of every age and the peculiar selfishness which characterized that age, assigned the dereliction to interested motives. This decision is vehemently impugned by Mr. Jenkins. He justly considers that the vast scope of Gibbon's design inevitably ensured errors, and that the documentary evidence of

the fifteenth century now permit a more searching and a safer scrutiny. The vindication of Cardinal Julian is the chief object with which the work has been written, and this has been done with a painstaking and scholarly investigation, in a high degree creditable to the writer. Nevertheless, we are quite unable to say—but on this point our readers will presently judge better for themselves—that a perusal of Mr. Jenkins's work has left on our mind the impression that he has succeeded in making out his case. To that limited class of readers who are anxious for the full elucidation of the great historian whose genius and learning bridged the interval between the ancient and the modern world, this volume will be productive of much gratification. But to the general reader we are afraid that it will scarcely be of much interest or much use. Mr. Jenkins is both an acute and able man, but his acuteness and ability have failed to enable him to popularize his materials, to place his subject in a striking point of view, to fling broad lights upon the whole surface of the age. Take, by way of contrast, the last volume of Milman's *Latin Christianity*. One scarcely goes to Milman for any special information. His mention of Cardinal Julian is fragmentary and imperfect. We may add that the last volume, though eminently brilliant in parts, is suspected of betraying symptoms of lassitude and disgust as the author drew near the end of his labours. Yet Milman never fails to display a fine philosophic grasp of the tendencies of the period, and delineates its incidents with an almost unrivalled pictorial effect. Mr. Jenkins, although his grasp of the subject is complete, has scarcely brought his particular theme into full relation with the history of the age, and he has failed to exhibit its details with a due amount of energy and colour.

Cardinal Julian was born in the year 1398. The House of Cesarini was a new one; for two centuries it continues high in wealth and honours, and then becomes merged in the historic houses of Sforza and Colonna. His lot was cast at the epoch of the Three Obediencies, the *verenda et abominanda Trinitas Paparum*. There was an intense desire and need for unity. Mr. Jenkins, with a candour unusual to Protestant writers, says, "a practical expediency, if not a positive necessity of government, identified the unity of the whole Church with the unity of the presiding See." The schisms of the anti-popes naturally brought an increased importance to the principle of synodical authority. The great doctrine of St. Augustine, *non uni sed unitati*, involved in it the Church's right to its own reformation. Thus, there were two objects which the great Council had to achieve, Unity and Reformation. The first of these was accomplished in the deposition of the anti-popes, and the election of Martin V. The second object was a failure, and it was not till the Council of Trent, whose doctrinal definitions for ever drew the line of demarcation between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism, that those practical reforms were made, which a natural one-sidedness has prevented us from perceiving and acknowledging. In the meantime young Julian had been attending the University of Perugia, where he became known to the governor of the city, of the historic name of Riccasoli, "a literary man, and a lover of men of letters." There he became eminent for his knowledge of civil law, which materially aided him in his future controversies. He afterwards returned to Rome, and found a still more influential patron in Branda di Castiglioni, Cardinal of Piacenza.

The great event with which the Council of

Constance is associated in the English mind, is the martyrdom of Huss. It is generally supposed that the doctrinal views of Huss and Jerome of Prague are to be attributed to the writings of Wyclif. But Mr. Jenkins points out that we must go much further in order to understand this portion of the religious history of Bohemia. It must be traced to "that strong religious sentiment of the Slavonian nations, which, from the day of their conversion in the ninth century, had separated them in their character and sympathies from the scholastic teaching of the Church of Rome. The death of Huss was perhaps rather due to the philosophical than to the religious quarrel. It was not so much a quarrel between the Papacy and incipient Protestantism, as between the Nominalism of the University of Paris and the Realism of the University of Prague. Mr. Jenkins repeats the often-told story of the execution of Huss, founded upon a careful examination of the authorities. The subsequent execution of Jerome was a repetition of the story of the old judgment hall of Jerusalem, the fatal witnesses, and the unjust judgment. The most important doctrinal decision of the Council was the law which ever since has deprived the Roman Catholic laity of the use of the cup. This law reached with especial effect the Slavonian nations, all whose traditions and national character and strongest religious feeling were bound up with the integrity of the Holy Institution of the Bread and Wine.

Branda had attended the Council of Constance and also the brief preceding Council that had been held at Pisa. With him Julian was constantly associated. In the palaces of the Italian Cardinals was then to be found all the best intellect and culture of the day, and of these Julian derived the full advantage. Soon after the dissolution of the Council, vengeance pursued the perfidy of Segismund. After a pause of unnatural calm the troubles broke out, and Cardinal Branda, accompanied by Julian, set out for a mission into Germany and Bohemia. Amid the smoke of universal discontent now flashed forth the angry flames of a sanguinary civil war. Ziska became the general of the Hussites, and Rokyczana their ecclesiastical champion. A new fortress arose near Prague, which was called Tabor, and hence the appellation to Ziska's hosts of Taborites. Forty thousand persons had there gathered together and received the communion in both kinds, the greatest celebration on record. And now began the most fearful devastation of war. Bohemia was then unequalled for its palaces, churches, and monasteries. Aeneas Sylvius, whose travels had penetrated even to distant England, declares that the priceless treasures of Bohemian shrines were unrivalled. He speaks of the arched temples, altars laden with gold and silver, the priestly robes embroidered with pearls, the lofty windows where the light streamed through glass of exquisite beauty. The Hussites ruthlessly destroyed the splendid monuments of ancient piety. A state of things also arose very parallel to the present condition of Southern history, the disorganization of the civil war developing the worst forms of brigandage. We cannot here enter into any details of the conflict of the might of the Imperial forces and the might of religious enthusiasm. Few historical pictures are so striking as the blind Ziska haranguing his soldiery on a beer-barrel, and dying victorious and after many victories; and Rokyczana sacrificing his cause for the Archbishopric of Prague, the object of his personal ambition, and afterwards, stung by remorse, on his dying bed admonishing the failing king that he must soon follow him to the awful judgment-seat of God. Mr. Jenkins gives

\* *The Last Crusader; or, the Life and the Times of Cardinal Julian, of the House of Cesarini; an Historical Sketch.* By Robert C. Jenkins, M.A., Trin. Coll. Camb., Rector and Vicar of Lyminge. (Bentley.)

a clear description of the differences between the Taborites and the Calixtines. Branda proving a comparative failure, the legatine commission was now entrusted to the Englishman Beaufort, Cardinal of Winchester, the uncle of Henry V. The Pope endeavoured to array another religious enthusiasm against the enthusiasm of the Hussites, and a large army was collected; but all real influence had now departed from the blest banner and the consecrated sword. A Diet was summoned at Nuremberg, to concert measures whereby to crush the rebellion. Julian was accredited there by the Pope as his representative. He was now Cardinal Deacon. He was appointed Legate of Bohemia. He was also nominated President of the General Council shortly to assemble at Basle, in pursuance of the provisions made at the Council of Constance. Soon after the great Martin died, and was succeeded by Cardinal Condolmieri, under the title of Eugenius IV. Mr. Jenkins throws little light upon the steps by which the young student of Perugia attained to these astonishing heights of reputation and employment. A knowledge of these is almost absolutely necessary for the full elucidation of the moral problems connected with his character. All that Mr. Jenkins can do is to describe the influences which the course of events probably exercised upon his mind. Mr. Jenkins is convinced that his favourite must have recognized that reform alone could bring back to the Church its disaffected members.

As Legate he preached the Crusade, and on the eve of opening the campaign he issued a pathetic address of entreaty to the Bohemians: "Return, dear pledges of love, return to us; we will go forth to meet you; we will embrace you." He proceeds to employ those honeyed accents which in all ages the spider has adopted towards the fly. A masterly reply was issued from Prague, not without a fine vein of irony, probably by Peter Payne, the English Hussite. The soldier-priest, with a hundred and twenty thousand men, advanced against Procopius. But this great army, notwithstanding Julian's multiplied exhortations, all melted away in cowardly retreat. The Legate, foiled in arms, was now driven to diplomacy. He conjured the malcontents to attend the coming Council at Basle. An attempt, however, was now being made to abrogate the Council by the Pope, the natural enemy of Councils. Eugenius denied the necessity of the Council, said there were better means for the pacification of Christendom, and finally empowered the Legate to dissolve the Council, and to summon another upon Italian ground. The Emperor at once demanded the suppression of the Bull for dissolution. The Cardinal President also wrote a letter, of which Mr. Jenkins says, "It would be difficult to find any writing which more completely represents the originality of the character of its author, and the military and ecclesiastical spirit that animated his life, often in rapid alternation, and sometimes in ill-omened conjunction." Many pages are occupied with this document, which, on many accounts, is of much value, and on which Mr. Jenkins endorses the opinion of a modern Italian writer, that "this great prelate herein had a single eye to the truth and to the interests of the Church." It is certain that Julian writes to the Pope with the utmost freedom of speech, but at the same time it ought to be considered that he wrote under the wing of the Emperor, fully assured of his countenance and support, that the Emperor entertained a very strong feeling on the question, and that he was probably as much worth conciliating as was the Pope.

We now turn to the Council of Basle, cha-

racterized by our author as "the imperishable monument of the wisdom and of the zeal of Cardinal Julian." The attempted dissolution only aroused the indignation of Christendom. The Council soon identified itself with the feelings that animated the great Council of Constance. Asserting the doctrine of the absolute supremacy of a Council, they cited Eugenius to appear before them. The Council put forth to the world "noble sentiments of ecclesiastical wisdom and freedom . . . with which they ratified, and in a measure authenticated, the letters of their great president, and gave a synodical weight to the doctrines he had expressed as an individual." The doctrine of "the infallibility of the Pope," the doctrine that a Council for contumacy might pass sentence of deposition upon a Pope, became generally admitted at Basle. This Council also re-instituted several most important canons of the Council of Nice, the freedom of the election of bishops, and the regular assembly of provincial and diocesan synods, privileges for which many of the Anglican Church sigh in vain. "Had such a law been faithfully obeyed, any reformation from without the Church, like that which the sixteenth century witnessed, would have been rendered unnecessary by the gradual renovation of the whole body from within." In 1434 Eugenius recalled his bulls for dissolution, and made his submission. Steps in favour of reformation were pushed forward, and at a single blow the *Annates* were abolished. Eugenius made a protest, which called forth a spirited rebuke from Julian. Another great subject was brought before the Council in the scheme for the reconciliation of the Eastern and Western Church, which subsequently resulted in the Ferrara-Florentine Councils, a scheme which, whenever brought forward, might be traced either to the political necessities of Constantinople or the crafty policy of Rome. A Greek embassy was sent to the Council, and an embassy of the Council was sent to Constantinople. We must pass over this web of curious intrigue, that we may hasten to the final schism of Basle. This schism is connected with Julian's sudden change of purpose, which, by Gibbon, is taken as a matter of reproach, by Mr. Jenkins in a very different light, but which, in our opinion, must still remain a mystery until the very unlikely event of the discovery of further evidence. Various suspicious symptoms of a change of purpose had appeared. He was gradually veering round to the side of the Pope, that the Œcumenical Council, for the impracticable scheme of reconciliation, should be held in Italy. These suspicions culminated when, as President of the Council and in possession of the official seal, he refused to attach it to the decree of the majority without sealing also the counter-decree of the minority. When at last he yielded the seal to the custody of a commission, his secretary broke into the chest where it was kept, and attached it to the decree of the minority—an outrage in which Julian's complicity is almost without a doubt. The news now came to Basle that the Greeks had embarked for Italy. Julian formed the determination of joining them and Eugenius at Ferrara, and abandoned Basle and all those principles which he had so eloquently asserted on behalf of the Council against the Pope. Mr. Jenkins considers that every stage of his transition is clear and consistent. This, in truth, is the salient point of his work; apparently the one object with which it has been written. If it fails to prove this, it fails to prove anything. His theory is, that Julian's grand objects were unity and reformation. Having failed in his schemes for reformation, he must

fall back upon his schemes for unity. The glorious vision of the Union of the East and West was now ever before him. Now, it seems to us that this theory of the defence is not substantiated, and that the witnesses, so far as they can be tested, seem to give damaging evidence on cross-examination. We might ask which was the greater, the work of practical reform or the scheme of visionary union? We are not at all prepared to accept Mr. Jenkins's assertion that the work of reformation and the work of unity was possible. It almost seems to us that the case lies all the other way. It must have been in a very high degree doubtful if there could have been even an apparent union between the Churches. And even if an apparent union could have been achieved, it must have been in the last degree doubtful whether this apparent union could have been real. Moreover, if he had remained fast to the Council, we do not see that the chances of union would not have been quite as good, even if not better. For if the Council had continued to show itself stronger than the Pope, there could be no doubt that Emperor and Pope would continue to treat with them; and a union with the stronger portion of the Church would be more effectual than a union with the weaker. Mr. Jenkins holds that Gibbon's assertion is confronted by the fact that Julian might have deposed Eugenius, and have grasped the Papacy for himself. Our reply is, that Mr. Jenkins has by no means substantiated this to be a fact. We know so little of the mixed politics of the Council, that it is impossible to become dogmatic on the point. Mr. Jenkins appeals to the letters of Julian. But a man's public letters are scarcely to be accepted as final evidence respecting a man's final intentions. One might as well argue from the outside of a sepulchre to the inside of a sepulchre. Moreover, what we know of Julian's conduct and principles in the affairs of life is such as to make the theory of an upright motive difficult, and the theory of a corrupt motive comparatively easy. Julian's conduct, while the seal of the Council was in his possession, was dishonest. His conduct, after he had given up its possession, was most suspicious; his attempt to ensnare and embroil the Greek Fathers was detestable. His final breach of faith with the Turks, under circumstances of peculiar atrocity, can scarcely be stigmatized with an excess of virulence. Besides, Mr. Jenkins himself makes a damaging admission when he laments Julian's rapid degeneracy after he deserted the Council. All these are considerations which make us pause before we accept our author's ingenious hypothesis of disinterested zeal. We have no wish to imitate our author's positive language by insisting on our side of the subject in the same way that he insists on his. But having considered the case which Mr. Jenkins has put to us, we, sitting in our capacity of literary jurors, must return the Scotch verdict of *not proven*.

Of the Council of Florence and that fascinating page in ecclesiastical history that describes the futile reconciliation with Constantinople, it is not our intention to say a word. We resolutely turn aside. Our readers will do well to peruse it in the pages of Mr. Jenkins, or, better still, of Dean Milman. Neither shall we take a glimpse of that quiet phase in his life when he re-entered Rome after the tumult of years at the time of that dawning knowledge of Eastern literature and philosophy associated with the recollection of Bessarion. Neither again shall we enter on the dark story of the Legation in Hungary, when, having sanctified a peace by receiving the Eucharist,



his perjury sacrificed Christian lives and the Christian cause, or tell how the revengeful tide of battle overtook him at Varna, where his restless ambition was rewarded by no honourable grave. Let us conclude with the earnest conclusion of Mr. Jenkins.

"The life of Cardinal Julian may supply the Reformer with many lessons and many warnings. His prophecy of a violent reformation from without, if a constitutional reformation should be delayed too long from within, had not its last fulfilment in the Reformation of the sixteenth century, nor was the temporizing diplomacy of the Empire at that great epoch the last imitation of the Eugenic policy that the Church is destined to witness. The worldly but profitable 'neutrality' which followed the dissolution of the Council of Basle has still too many advocates, and the distraction of the Church itself is deciding between the claims of reformation and of unity, of truth and of peace remains still. May the Spirit of truth and peace suffer not this Church, while settling the proceedings of these great labours, to forget that the night is at hand, in which no work may be done; that the conflict may be yet nearer, in which the powers which we are now permitted to exercise for our reformation may be taken away from us to our destruction."

#### WYCLIF, PEACOCK, AND THE REFORMATION.\*

"SUCH is the lot of all that deal in public affairs, whether of Church or Commonwealth," said Hooker; "that which men list to surmise of their doings, be it good or ill, they must beforehand patiently arm their minds to endure." Wyclif, the Reformer, fully illustrates the truth of this aphorism: those who have defended and those who have assailed his motives and actions have forgotten the fact that to believe that the Church stands in need of reformation and to approve a certain mode of reforming it are two very different things. Wyclif was emphatically a man of the times; he acted what other men only thought or wrote; his views were in harmony with the popular mind, and when he expressed himself bitterly with regard to adversaries, it was from that irrational and unfair belief which animates all zealots, making them fancy that the truths of their own religious views are so plain that every man of intellect who belongs to another party cannot fail to see, and nothing but human considerations hinder him from openly professing them.

We propose to lay before our readers the lives of Wyclif and Peacock, in a succinct form and divested of many previous misstatements, to enable them to draw their own conclusion as to the degree in which each of these remarkable men may be considered a harbinger of the Reformation. Wykeham, in the preface to his *Statutes*, exhibits a melancholy picture of the condition of the monasteries and religious orders, stating that everywhere the wills of founders were neglected. Bishop Fox was forewarned by his sagacious brother prelate Oldham of the coming destruction of the monasteries. "What, my lord," said he, "shall we build houses and provide livelihoods for a company of bussing monks, whose end and fall we ourselves may live to see?" The first blows were struck by Henry VI., Alcock, Chicheley, Beckington, and Wolsey, by the suppression of the alien priories or lesser religious houses, or by their conversion into new collegiate foundations

bearing their names. The wealth of the great monasteries led to internal corruption, and invited spoliation by the State. Their dissolution could never have been effected by any force of law, by exercise of power of the State, or by the influence of the Crown; the people had been first alienated from the Papal system, and men of the deepest learning and most religious convictions took part in the revolution which laid them in ruin and sent forth their inmates as mendicants or pensioners for life. The description of the Friar in the *Canterbury Tales* and in the popular songs of the period proves incontestably the fallen condition of the orders originally mendicant. Chaucer's Benedictine is likewise depicted as a luxurious sporting man.

The great political changes of the period took their origin in the factions and intrigues of the nobles, the dissensions in the Church, and popular risings under leaders who resented the oppression of the Government. The power of the burgesses began to be felt in Parliament, the franklin stood only one step below the noble, and free intercourse prevailed among all classes of society. Owing to plagues and long wars, the population had diminished, parish churches had fallen into ruin, and the parish clergy were illiterate, while learning had undergone decline: the universities were ill-attended, and the scholars went about begging bread to enable them to pursue their studies.

John Wyclif was born at Hipswell, near Richmond, and was descended from the ancient family of Wyclif; of the year of his birth we have no information, and know only from his own testimony that in 1382 he calls himself "in fine vitæ." Of the intermediate stage of his life, until April in 1361, when he was Warden of Balliol College, Oxford, we know nothing; on May 16 he was presented to the rectory of Fyningham in Lincolnshire, upon which he probably resided, having resigned his mastership some time after July in the same year. In October, 1363, he rented some rooms in Queen's College, and about the same period was created Doctor of Divinity. Mr. Shirley very conclusively shows that he was never Warden of Canterbury Hall; and that the Fellow of Merton, with whom he has been confounded, was a different person. On November 12, 1368, he was presented to the living of Ludgershall, which on April 7, 1371, he exchanged for Lutterworth; for a few days, in November 1375, he held a prebend in the church of Westbury.

In May, 1366, the Parliament met to consider an application for thirty-three years' arrears of tribute from England. Wyclif, who speaks of himself as a royal chaplain, defended the refusal of the Parliament in the schools at Oxford, and furnished, perhaps, the earliest report of a debate in the House of Lords. In consequence of the unfortunate campaign of the Prince of Wales in Spain and of the war with France, a heavy tax was granted on all lands which had passed into mortmain; and since the twentieth year of Edward I., a tenth voted by the clergy was enforced upon all small livings hitherto exempted from assessment. A Benedictine preaching before the University claimed the right of total immunity from national taxation for the religious order; this sermon provoked Wyclif, who relates the reply of a wise old lord in Parliament to a similar allegation. "Once upon a time a poor owl unfledged came into the assembly of the birds, and being starved with cold, entreated with a piteous voice the loan of some feathers. The birds good-naturedly gave him each a feather, so that at last he was so puffed out as to be quite deformed. No sooner had this been done than a hawk arrived, and the birds, to escape out of his way,

asked their feathers back; the owl said no, but the birds took each his part of the plumage, and so got away, leaving the owl more naked than he was before. So when war threatens, we must take the temporalities of the clergy as the property of the realm, and wisely treat them as superfluities to defend it."

John Wyclif went as a royal commissioner to the Pope in 1374, but he returned ill-satisfied with the result. Wyclif had found a patron and friend in John of Gaunt, who cordially hated the Bishops. Wyclif preached apostolic poverty as a means to restore apostolic virtue in the clergy. His socialistic views at length provoked the attention of Convocation, who took no notice of his heresies on the subject of the Incarnation, his doctrine of the imperishability of matter, which had been condemned by Archbishop Langham, nor his revival of the necessitarian tenets of Bradwardine. They arraigned him on his political views. He appeared on February 23rd in St. Paul's; but the threats of the Duke, who came to support him against the Bishop of London, caused the council to be broken up, and nearly cost "time-honoured Gaunt" his life. The monks, however, applied to the Court of Rome, which directed the University and the Bishops to resume proceedings against Wyclif. A letter from the Archbishop Sudbury, and Courtenay, Bishop of London, to the Chancellor of Oxford, dated December 10th, cited Wyclif, through him, to appear before them at St. Paul's on the thirtieth day from that day—a summons which was afterwards exchanged for a later date at Lambeth Palace. In the first year of the reign of Richard II., not later probably than September, Wyclif was consulted by the King and Great Council as to the lawfulness of withholding the Papal dues in pressing necessity for the defence of the country; meanwhile, he was putting forward letters in his own defence. A message from the Princess of Wales, and an outburst of popular feeling, in favour of Wyclif, broke up the Council at Lambeth, and any further proceedings were prevented by the schism in the Papacy. In 1379, Wyclif sent his protest by two Bishops to Urban VI. In the previous year, he advocated the infamous scheme of the Duke of Lancaster to despoil the Church, which that unscrupulous prince recommended to the Parliament at Gloucester, in revenge for the excommunication which had been pronounced on the authors, enactors, and abettors of a horrible act of sacrilege committed by one of his retainers, who violated the privilege of sanctuary of Westminster, and murdered a man before the high altar in the Abbey, because he refused to accede to a tyrannical demand made by his bad master.

In 1374-5 and 1380, Wyclif was renting rooms in Queen's College, and disputing in the Schools. In his Preface to his work *De Dominio Divino*, he declares his resolution to devote his studies in future exclusively to theology. At first, sending forth logical, physical, and philosophical works, he soon began to combine politics with theology, coming forward as a reformer of the constitution of the Church; and actually employed, throughout the enormous diocese of Lincoln and in London, a preaching order of "simple priests," coarse uneducated men, dressed in long cumbersome russet gowns, who were suppressed by authority before the year 1382 or 1383. A great portion of the antipathy of Englishmen to the Papal authority was owing to the Papal residence being fixed at Avignon; the Pope was regarded as being the immediate friend of France, and the recipient of money devoted to wars which were carried on against their coun-

\* *Peacock's Repressor*. Edited by C. Babbington, B.D. 2 vols. Longmans, 1860.  
*Pascuuli Zizaniorum*. Edited by W. W. Shirley, M.A. Longmans, 1858.

try. With the schism in the Papacy, and the recognition of Urban VI., this feeling was removed, and the unpopularity of the Lancastrian government hastened the reaction. Wyclif, despairing of practical reforms, had turned his thoughts to a reformation of dogmas in the Church; he began to write English tracts, to promise a translation of the Bible, and after Easter, 1381, issued a paper denying the doctrine of Transubstantiation.

The Chancellor of Oxford, assisted by a Convocation of Doctors, formally condemned Wyclif, who appealed to the Crown, and his old patron, the Duke of Lancaster, came in due course, but confirmed the sentence by an injunction of silence for the future on the subject of the Eucharist. The decree was made in the schools of the Austin Friars, while Wyclif occupied his chair, holding an academic determination on the other side, and bewildering his auditory. Although at first confused by the condemnation, he declared that he would not change his opinion. "All have erred in the matter," he said doggedly, "but Berengarius." In reply to the Duke, he, on May 10, 1380, put forward a confession, stating that he believed in a real, virtual, spiritual, and sacramental, but not essential, substantial, corporeal, and identical presence of Christ's Body in the Host.

Between the summer of 1381 and the expiration of the Chancellor's year of office, some judicial inquiries were instituted; and on May 19th, 1382, a provincial council, assembled by the Archbishop in the Blackfriars' convent in London, condemned twenty-four conclusions drawn from Wyclif's writings. He was banished from the University, and the heads of his party compelled to recant. An earthquake happened somewhat ominously during the day.

During two years Wyclif had been suffering from paralysis. In 1384 he received a summons from the Pope to appear before him, but he excused himself by pleading that he was too weak to take the journey. On December 29th, as he was hearing Mass in his parish church, a death-stroke deprived him of speech, and on the 31st he was no more. "He is said to have been of a spare, pale, emaciated frame, a quick temper, of a conversation most innocent, the charm of every rank." His tracts are described as showing "exquisite pathos, keen delicate irony, manly passion, in short, nervous sentences;" and an assembly of graduates of Universities of Oxford, Bonn, and Paris, convened on November 20th, 1410, by order of the Pope, decided that it would be injudicious and impolitic to burn his works.

In the fourteenth century the monks and secular clergy began to maintain an honourable rivalry with the mendicant orders, of whom the Franciscans (who had numbered Roger Bacon, Duns Scotus, and Ockham, among their members; and to him Grosstete bequeathed his library), possessed the highest influence at Oxford. The regular clergy and friars, as Nominalists, were now in opinion opposed to the secular priests, who were Realists; and Wyclif, on the relations of matter and form, adopted almost the language of Aquinas. His doctrine on the nature of God and the Incarnation was Augustinian; his opinions with regard to the Eucharist we have already stated. His theory of dominion, involving the relation of Church and State, was an ideal feudal theory, which he acknowledged to be impracticable; mortal sin he declared deprived a man of his authority, whether priesthood or lordship, or, as his favourite expression was, "all dominion is founded in grace;" his grossly irreverent phrase to express the duty of submission to constituted authority was that "God ought to obey the

devil." He further declared the King to be the vicar of God in things temporal, but wished the Church to resign its endowments and return to her primitive poverty; and referred the individual conscience to the throne of heaven as the tribunal of personal appeal.

The life of the learned, argumentative, and critical Peacock, offers a suitable sequel to that of Wyclif. He was by birth a Welshman, born about the close of the fourteenth century, and was in due time ordained upon his fellowship at Oriel College, Oxford. His distinction in secular and religious learning recommended him at Court, and he was appointed Master of Whittington College and Rector of St. Michael in Riola, in 1431. In 1444 he was consecrated Bishop of St. Asaph, and scandalized the University by taking the degree of Doctor in Divinity without keeping any exercise or act. Troubles and misconception befell the Bishop, and he increased the storm of unpopularity by a sermon he delivered at Paul's Cross, in which he contended that Bishops were not bound to preach by virtue of their office, vindicated their common neglect to reside on their dioceses, and justified the Papal supremacy and right to provisions and annates. In fact, he was an uncompromising advocate of the grossest abuses in the Church, probably from the pure desire of withstanding the excesses of Wyclif and his followers. He vainly believed that he had silenced his opponents by his skilful oratory. They only joined his name with the obnoxious bishops; and from the clergy, the universities, and the friars enemies rose up; but although an appeal was made by them to the Primate, he escaped official censure both for his sermon and for some disparaging remarks on the authority of the Fathers. In 1449 he came forward to vindicate the clergy against the aspersions of the "lay party" or "Bible men," as he calls the Lollards, and defended the use of images, pilgrimages, landed tenure by the clergy, hierarchical ranks, institution of religious orders, and the enactment of ecclesiastical laws by Papal and episcopal authority. One amusing blunder occurs in his elaborate argument that the Pope is head of the Church, because St. Peter was called Cephas. He occupied a middle ground between the absolute dogmatism of the Roman party and the narrow scripturalism of the Wyclifite, and aimed at temperate improvement in the Church, and not violent measures of reconstruction. He was no puritan; he stood midway between the churches of Rome and England, as they exist now. He insisted on Scripture being the sole rule of Faith; the necessity of proving doctrines by reason; the fallibility of General Councils; the rejection of the Apocrypha from the Canon; while he upheld Papal supremacy, the invocation of saints, and the use of images. The friars he called pulpit-bawlers (*clamitatores in pulpitis*). At the same time he held that Scripture must be brought into accordance with the judgment of the reason, and that the doctrine of the sacraments is more founded in reason than revelation. He also states that English society was in a condition fearfully corrupt. In 1456, he wrote a temperate appeal to the Lollards, yielding up any belief in an infallible authority in matters of faith, but urging them to surrender their independent notions, and made an approach to the doctrine of religious toleration, which even the Reformers did not learn. "The clergy shall be condemned at the last day if by clear wit they draw not men into consent of true faith otherwise than by sword and fire and hangment." Edward IV. condemned his works, and, strangely enough, Henry VI. forbade any one holding the opinions of Wyclif or Peacock

to retain a scholarship at King's College, Cambridge; as though the opinions of the two men were identical.

Peacock, now Bishop of Chichester, fell into disgrace with the King and the bishops; his patrons, the Dukes of Gloucester and Suffolk, were dead, and he was condemned by the Primate on November 28th, 1457, to recant his opinions at Paul's Cross, where he retracted errors he had never uttered and words which he knew to be truths. The executioner threw his works into the fire which he only narrowly escaped, and as he turned away he said, "My pride and presumption have brought upon me these troubles and reproaches." Every copy of his works at Oxford was also burned at Carfax before the Chancellor. He was put in confinement and deprived of his see. "If I defend my opinions and positions, I must be burned to death," said the unhappy man; "if I do not, I shall be a byword and a reproach." His prediction was true; the most learned bishop of his time, the most candid, moderate, and conciliatory, he formed no party and provoked adversaries to whom he was as much opposed as they were between themselves. Denied writing materials, confined to one chamber, and faring like a common monk, he passed his last days in Thorney Abbey. His truest consolations were his books of devotion, and the only sight visible beyond his prison cell, was the best—the altar of the Church.

Wyclif, with whose opinions Peacock had no sympathy, could destroy, but he was powerless to reconstruct. He abandoned the peculiar tenets of Rome, and laid the foundation of a Reformation by his translation and assertion of the sole supremacy of Holy Scripture. He was fiercely anti-sacerdotal, and denounced both Popes as Antichrist. At once a subtle logician, a popular pamphleteer, and a religious tract writer, he had to address two audiences—the learned, in the language of the Schools, and the poor, in homely and rude English. Music and organs he detested as keenly as Will Dowsing. His proposal to confiscate the property of the Church won for him intense popularity, as it opened a hope of relief from the burden of taxes; and his attack on the mendicants secured him friends at Oxford. He proposed that tithes should be given to the poor, that no alms should be sent to the Pope, that no foreigner should hold preferment in England, and that delinquent clerks should be deprived of their temporalities.

In that age of controversy, political antipathies, and fierce party spirit, every religious malcontent avowed himself the follower of Wyclif; restless fanatics, men whose only creed was to hate the mendicant orders, socialist preachers, political adventurers, and men who rejected, as unworthy of the Christian religion, every mystery, and rejoiced in the preaching of this expurgated Bible by unlettered men, for which certainly these last could quote the authority of Wyclif. There can be no doubt that even the better Lollards held strong independent opinions, and were as much political as polemical emissaries; they preached against tithes and dues to the clergy, and services and homage to the lord; they held that no priest in sin could duly administer sacraments or perform his office, and wished to take away all endowments; on the other hand, they led irreproachable lives; and the persecution which began, by the statute of 1400, against heretics, only increased and embittered their zeal, and provoked furious controversial retaliations in reply.

The Reformation in England, as it appears to us, was an event long foreseen and gradually in operation during two centuries, and the



cause was the alienation of the people from a luxurious and careless clergy, whose broad lands and rich endowments were the source of internal corruption, and provoked the envy of the nobles and the cupidity of the State. The bishops were contemned because non-resident and neglectful of their sacred duties, and their office, because often obtained by impure means, had fallen into disrepute. Internal discords raged between the endowed orders and the ill-paid and ignorant parish clergy; and the pride, state, and secular pursuits of the dignitaries, and, in many cases, their vicious lives, disgusted the minds of men; while they were blind to the religious necessities of the time, and insensible to their own danger. Ecclesiastical discipline was well-nigh lost, abuses abounded, miserable superstitions prevailed among the untaught people, and the Papal system was felt to be an intolerable burden. The work of spoliation and sacrilege was begun and carried on by men who were not yet Protestants; very few superiors of religious houses refused to surrender them to the Crown, and one bishop only suffered death for his principles. In what degree Wyclif or Peacock may have predisposed the popular mind to this event, the reader must decide from the new data which Mr. Shirley and Mr. Babington have provided. By their dispassionate and scholarlike treatment of their respective subjects, these editors have contributed most valuable materials towards a satisfactory resolution of every doubt that may be entertained.

## POETRY.

*Christopheros and other Poems.* By Walter B. Mant, Archdeacon of Down. (Bell and Daldy.) Had we not seen by the title-page that these poems are the result of the leisure hours of a church dignitary, we should have rather judged them the first productions of a youthful author, and as containing promise of subsequent success in another and a higher vein. It is no uncommon thing to find the early energies of men who are afterward to become celebrated prose writers directed to the production of verse, and the lines they produce so fluently are much of the character of those of the Archdeacon of Down. We do not intend to sneer at the volume in what we say; there is a good deal that is clever in it, much that is right-minded and high-toned, the trace of varied and refined reading, and not much poetry. The author says that the poems were composed chiefly in the open air, without any intention of publication, and as such they are decidedly creditable, but they are now printed at the recommendation of friends. Oh! those friends; how ill-timed and foolish are their continual suggestions, and yet how difficult it is to avoid relying upon their opinions when they back up our own, and are so appreciative of our own merits! In literature at least the opinions of friends are eminently to be mistrusted. "Oh that mine enemy had written a book!" was of old a fearful curse; it has now lost, by the frequency with which the bad wishes are gratified, some of its depth of malediction; the expression might now be paraphrased into "Oh that my friend would write a book!" and the cynical philosophy of Rochefoucauld, that there is something not altogether unpleasing in the misfortunes of our best friends, may account for the warmth with which a man is backed up by his friends when he proposes to himself rushing into print. The best of the verses in the volume are those of the ballad order, which commence it; the worst are the sacred poems, especially those where the author attempts to tag with rhymes the sublime rhapsodies of Isaiah. The imitation of Herrick's beautiful Litany to the Holy Spirit is, we consider, little better than an irreverent parody of an exquisite poem. Lines like these read very tamely as an attempt to succeed the beautiful verses of Herrick:—

"When the cares of mortal life,  
Round my pathway gathering rife,  
Bar me in the Christian strife,  
Sweet Spirit, comfort me!"

"When my way is dark and drear,  
And mine eyesight is not clear;  
When I need a voice to cheer;  
Sweet Spirit, comfort me!"

"When my heart within me quaileth  
For the trouble that assaileth;  
When the friend I've trusted faileth,  
Sweet Spirit, comfort me!"

Imitations of metres of Byron and Scott, both obvious favourites of the author, are frequent through this volume. It is handsomely got up, and if there is not a vein of high poetry, there is much facility in verse-making, and several very interesting anecdotes and notes scattered through the volume. The Legend, which is versified in one of the most interesting of these poems, is taken from the pages of an early number of this journal.

## SHORT NOTICES.

*History of St. Mary's Abbey, Melrose; the Monastery of Old Melrose; and the Town and Parish of Melrose.* By James A. Wade. (T. C. Jack, Edinburgh; Hamilton, Adams, and Co., London.) In almost every respect this is a reasonable publication. Thanks to the immortality which has been bestowed upon it by the famous lines of Scott, there is perhaps not one of the numerous and beautiful monastic ruins with which the banks of our fairest rivers and the depths of our loveliest glades are adorned, that is so thoroughly celebrated as Melrose. And now, when the tide of autumn tourists sets in for Scotland, those who leave the great north road at Berwick to explore the romantic and historical Border-land and the banks of the Tweed, unquestionably the loveliest of the Scotch rivers, will be glad of a complete and reliable guide to that which is, after all, its greatest ornament—the glorious old Abbey of Melrose. True, the whole district is classic, and the names of Dryburgh, Abbotsford, Selkirk, Ettrick, and Yarrow, are household names in England; but Melrose is the chief object of attraction to English tourists, and to visit it by "the pale moonlight" a very legitimate object of Cockney ambition. In every respect, however, Melrose is worthy of its reputation. As a specimen of flamboyant architecture there are few of our ruins that are entitled to a comparison with it. Its windows, especially the eastern, are noble specimens of the Perpendicular Gothic, with its combination of strength with extreme grace and lightness and apparent fragility. In the chapels the groined ribs which support the roof are embellished with beautiful carvings; and the pillars which support all that remains of the tower, are rich with sculptures of uncommon beauty. In the ornamentation of the friezes and in the decorated capitals of the columns, the leaves, fruits, and flowers are executed with inimitable delicacy and grace, and with most remarkable fidelity to nature. Nor less worthy of attention are the associations which invest this pile. As we pace its aisles, recollections of the grim struggles of border warfare which its tower may have witnessed, can hardly fail to arise before us. Wild forays of the Percy from Northumberland, or the more important, though not sterner, struggles of the Scotch to repel the tide of invasion which England continually poured from Berwick. Within the grounds are the graves of names familiar in border history, Douglasses, Scotts, Kers, and Frasers. Here is buried Sir William Douglas, the dark knight of Liddesdale, and here, too, lies the other Douglas, the hero of the grand old fight of Otterbourn, which gave rise to the noblest of our old ballads, Chevy Chase. Near at hand to him lies the heart of Robert Bruce, brought back by Sir William Keith, after the ineffectual but chivalric effort of Lord Douglas to convey it to Jerusalem. Associations like these cling to the old walls of Melrose, and scarcely a foot of its burial-ground but conceals beneath it the bones of one who has left behind him a name still ringing like a trumpet in the traditions of border history preserved in its neighbourhood. This work is handsomely got up, and contains a large

amount of valuable and trustworthy information. Perhaps we might have spared a few of the sententious moralizings which sprinkle its pages; its attempts at poetical descriptions are a little laboured, and the style occasionally not a little grandiose. Like almost all Scotch books, it amuses the English reader by the thoroughly national and prejudiced views it frequently takes of past history; but these are, after all, minor faults, and detract little from the integral value of the book. We see that the author announces for publication a companion volume, descriptive of Abbotsford, Dryburgh Abbey, and the surrounding districts.

*The Testimony of Sceptics to the Truth of Christianity.* (Darton.) The author of this small volume is evidently a man of very considerable general reading, which he has been anxious to turn to a religious use. He chiefly conceives that he may be doing good service to young men if he should collect from the writings of avowed infidels passages that strongly tend in favour of Christianity. His list, without being exhaustive, is both considerable and interesting. His plan is, to give a few facts and dates respecting the names he selects, some brief religious or critical remarks, and then adduce the passages reserved for quotation. This is fairly done, except that he perhaps occasionally lays a greater stress upon his quotation than the context will probably bear. After this occur three quasi-dissertations: (1) The Evidence and Inconsistency of Philosophers and Celebrated Enemies of Christianity; (2) The Evidence of Profane Historians to the Truth of Christianity; (3) The Testimony of fulfilled Prophecy to the Truth of Christianity.

*Twelve Obscure Texts of Scripture, illustrated according to the Spiritual Sense.* By Mary C. Hume. (Manwaring.) This work is written in an earnest spirit, and displays a meritorious amount of literary skill. The authoress is a Swedenborgian, and is anxious to inculcate the religious opinions of her sect. We imagine the interest which this publication will arouse will scarcely be so intense as to justify the apprehension or the hope of any considerable proselytizing. The volume abounds in attacks on ancient and orthodox opinions. We occasionally meet with some remarkable statements—e.g. "One science alone, among all the rest, has hitherto been regarded as circumscribed within the narrowest limits, exhaustible by the meanest intelligence, capable of appreciation and mastery as full and complete by the dullest boor as by the wisest and most highly cultivated philosophic mind. We need scarcely name the science of religion." Now, this remark is palpably incorrect. No confession is oftener on the lips of all great divines than their sense of their utter inadequacy to exhaust this divine science; and this is universally acquiesced in by the devout laity. The more a man learns, he discovers that he has still more to learn; as Dr. Chalmers said, "The greater the circle of light, the larger the circumference of darkness." In some instances the authoress misstates, or rather seems never to have comprehended, the real force of the ordinarily received theology. She has a long note, which apparently proceeds upon the assumption that the necessity of good works has no place in the Christian scheme. Perhaps this is attributable to the incoherency of thought which an impolite experience attributes to the arguments of ladies. In its scope and many of its details we confess that the work appears to us in the last degree objectionable, but it exhibits the traces of an intelligence and fairness of mind that make us think that when the authoress has attained to a wider acquaintance with religious truth, she will not be content to rest in her present opinions.

*Nichol's Series of Standard Divines. Puritan Periods. The Works of Thomas Goodwin, D.D.* Vols. I. and II. (Edinburgh: Nichol.) We are glad to believe that among all sensible people there is a great and growing respect for the Puritans. Whatever our opinion may be of the great quarrel of their epoch, there is no doubt they have contributed a most vigorous and important element to the religious and political life of England. The literature of the Puritan Divines is both rich and valuable; in some respects, of peculiar richness and value. Nevertheless, its voluminousness suggests

the necessity, to use a happy phrase, of "drawing the line somewhere." Worthy Dr. Goodwin meditated an exposition of the Epistle to the Ephesians: we have here a volume of between five and six hundred pages, and he has only arrived at the end of the first chapter. It so happened that the exposition was not completed; but an edition of his works is threatened in fifteen volumes, to be followed by other editions of other writers. Now, life is short and books are many: one era does not exhaust theological writers. One likes to know a little about other men, St. Augustine, St. Bernard, Jeremy Taylor, Dr. Wordsworth. It is tolerably clear that if we read all these Puritans' works we must be almost content to read nothing else. Now we must honestly give a word of caution to the very limited class that may be supposed to be addicted to this literature. The exclusive study of this particular school will materially tend to narrow their sympathies, and its faulty style to corrupt their literary tastes. Mr. Nichol has done the public good service by his useful editions: we wish him success in the present, but own that we should recommend a material limitation of his design. The first of the two volumes contains a general preface to the series, from the pen of Dr. Miller, of Birmingham. The essay is able and fairly up to the literature of the day, but the amount of quotation is excessive. Dr. Miller laments the state of the pulpit at present, the intellectual feebleness, and the want of systematic theology. He denounces "Broad Church views," whatever he happens to mean by that very expansive expression. The next volume contains a memoir of Dr. Goodwin by Dr. Halley. An interesting point in this memoir is that the writer identifies Dr. Goodwin with the Puritan Head of a College, described by Addison in the 'Spectator' (No. 494). The memoir is carefully compiled from the authorities of the period. The life of Dr. Goodwin runs parallel with the seventeenth century, and lasted nearly eighty years of it. He was one of those who settled at Amsterdam through the fear of Laud; he subsequently became one of the Westminster Assembly of Divines, and was Master of Magdalen College, Oxford, in Cromwell's time. This he was of course obliged to resign at the Restoration; but notwithstanding the Conventicle and Five Mile Act, he was allowed to continue his ministry quietly till his death. A criticism is subjoined on his writings, which we are afraid will be scarcely intelligible to the "general reader." "He breathes the spirit and speaks the language of Perkins, Sibbs, and John Rogers; but his thoughts were kindred to those of Owen and Charnock,"—all good men, with whom the "general reader" might do well to become acquainted.

*Angels, Cherubim, and Gods; or, an Inquiry into the Signification and Application of these and other kindred Expressions in the Holy Scriptures.* (Wertheim.) This is a big, foolish book. We are unwilling to speak harshly of a man of strong religious feeling, and we are unable to speak kindly from a sense of the duty of the critical office. The attempt of the first and largest part is to prove that whenever an angel is spoken of in the Bible one of the Persons of the Trinity is signified. A most liberal induction of instances is given; but in our view the theory is not made out, and for many pages the book is a tissue of inconclusive reasoning and forced interpretation. We are unwilling to enter into any formal criticism. When the author settles what from the bulk of the work must necessarily be a very heavy printer's bill, he will probably be a sadder and a wiser man.

*The Life of Nelson.* By Robert Southey. New Edition; with additional Notes, and Plates, and a general Index. (Bohn.) Mr. Bohn has published a new edition of Southey's admirable *Life of Nelson* in his Illustrated Library. This book is now entitled to rank as a classic, and the story of heroism it conveys is one that Englishmen will always peruse with pride. The language in which it is written is eminently easy and flowing, and there are few readers who have not felt its charm. As a book for boys, it stands next in spirit-stirring adventure to *Robinson Crusoe*. This edition is enriched with many engravings of more or less merit, and with portraits, and plans of Nelson's greatest battles, which are of infinitely more interest and value to

the readers; and we fancy many will look with profound interest at the facsimile of the handwriting of the following sentence—"An officer desires to return thanks to Almighty God for his perfect recovery from a severe wound, and also for the many mercies bestowed upon him"—who will not care for a coloured engraving of "Nelson bird's-nesting with his wife," prettily as this may have been designed by Mr. Birket Foster.

We have received the following Serials and Pamphlets:—Part XXV. of *Once a Week*; Part XXXI. of the *English Cyclopædia* (Bradbury and Evans); No. 5 of the *Boy's Own Library*; No. 17, *Englishwoman's Domestic Magazine*; the number for September of *Boy's Own Magazine* (S. O. Beeton); *The North British Review* (Hamilton, Adams, and Co.); *Transactions of the Tyneside Naturalists' Field Club* (Dodsworth, Newcastle); *Papal Aggressions on England*, by the Rev. R. Potter (Seeley, Jackson, and Co.); *The Census of Liverpool* (Tinning); *Suggestions towards Peopling North America* (Stanford); *The Place of English amongst other Languages* (Crystal Palace Library); *Deportment and Dancing*, by Madame Michan (T. C. Newby); *Association of Ideas, a Lecture*, by Dr. McCosh (Hodges and Co., Dublin); *Farewell Sermon*, by the Rev. J. W. Weare, M.A. (J. H. and J. Parker); *Speech of the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, M.P., on Education* (Ridgway); *Newton's Anglo-Italian Elements of Singing* (Novello); *The Natural History of the Tineina* (Van Voort); *London Sewage and Thames Embankment* (Weale); *Oxford Pocket Classics: The Knights of Aristophanes; The Messages of the Prince* (J. H. and J. Parker); *The Hurst Johnian* (Treacher, Brighton); *A Visit to Canada*, by R. A. Slaney, Esq., M.P. (Hatchard and Co.); *Kingston's Magazine for Boys* (Bosworth and Harrison); *The Charge of the Lord Bishop of Salisbury* (Rivingtons); *The Pharmaceutical Journal* (Churchill); *The Eclectic Review* (Judd and Glass); *The Ladies' Companion* (Rogerson and Tuxford); *Good Words* (Groombridge and Sons); *Routledge's Natural History* (Routledge); *Le Follet* (Kent and Co.); *Everybody's Holiday Guide for September* (Adams).

#### MAGAZINES.

*Cornhill.* The subject of the "Roundabout Papers," No. 16, in the *Cornhill Magazine*, is to a considerable extent personal to the author. It is entitled "On Two Roundabout Papers which I intended to write," one of which is a sketch of Gorillas and Gorilla-land. The idea of the article has originated in the fact of the author having been shown by a "good-natured friend" a portrait of himself, executed in photography, and representing him, to use his own words, "as an immense and most unpleasant-featured baboon, with long, hairy hands, and called by the waggish artist 'A Literary Gorilla.'" It is clear that while assuming to treat this as a joke, there is a strong current of bitterness underlies the serio-comic terms in which our great novelist speaks of this feeble and contemptible insult. We would only recall to Mr. Thackeray that his position, with regard alike to his own dignity and to that of a profession of which he is so distinguished an ornament, and the best members of which are not slow to recognize his surpassing merits, should lead him utterly to despise and pass over impertinence only persevered in because it is seen to mortify, and because his own notice endows it with life. The other half of the paper is on the Northumberland Street Tragedy. Speaking of one of the proposed "Roundabout Papers," he says, with a vein of admirable *persiflage*, but which in innumerable instances will be read with undoubted good faith, "It was to have contained all the deep paths of Addison, the logical precision of Rabelais, the child-like playfulness of Swift, the manly stoicism of Sterne, the metaphysical depth of Goldsmith, the blushing modesty of Fielding, the epigrammatic terseness of Walter Scott, the uproarious humour of Sam Richardson, and the gay simplicity of Sam Johnson." The illustration in this number, admirable as usual, is entitled "A Charity Bazaar." There is an article

called "An Old John Bull," which is, however, quite unworthy of insertion in the pages of the *Cornhill*. It is a shallow and superficial sketch of the fine old poet George Wither, by one whose ignorance of the author himself is not to be wondered at, as it appears to extend to the period in which he wrote. As a sample of the errors contained, we may mention that the name is persistently spelt wrongly—Withers instead of Wither. Then his poems, when quoted, are quoted continually incorrectly. The fair damsels of that age are represented as "wooded in the softest and most courtly strains of Marlowe, Lovelace, *Craushaw*," of which most unhappy selection Lovelace is the only one whose name is in the least degree appropriate to the time and circumstances supposed. It is of course possible that the Cavaliers of that period might go back some generations to the dramatist of the Elizabethan age; but except one famous madrigal they would not find many soft or courtly love-songs of his composition in which to woo; and amidst the swarm of courtly love poets from whom he might borrow, surely the Don Juan of the period would hardly seek for his amorous odes in the mystical and devotional breathings of the Catholic author of "Steps to the Temple," Richard Crashaw, whom we suppose to be referred to when *Craushaw* is spoken of. Once more, at the conclusion of the article, "the sympathetic reader" is assured that there is no proof that Wither died in the wars of the Revolution; to which we answer by assuring him that, on the contrary, there is ample proof that he did not. "Keeping up Appearances" and "Food—How to take it" are both good articles.

*Macmillan's.* *Macmillan* for this month opens with a first instalment of a strange rambling essay, entitled "Good and Evil," from the pen of Dr. Felix Eberly. The author's object, as he informs us in his preamble, is "to induce a reflecting mind to look a little nearer into some of the most interesting provinces of the philosophy of ethics." He appears to regard philosophy as co-extensive with logic, defining it as "the art of thinking correctly," being more of an art than a science, and incapable of teaching facts or experiences, or any material knowledge." As far as we can judge from the portion of the article before us, it appears to be an attempt at "metaphysics for the million." "Romse Church," a legend of the Baltic, is a strange romantic story, told with considerable power; the author is no other than Prince Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein. The serial story, "Ravenshoe," by Mr. Henry Kingsley, exhibits a very marked improvement, and promises to become a "feature" in *Macmillan*. The chapter entitled "Diogenes in the Wheelbarrow" is worthy of Dickens. Dr. Kelland has a very interesting paper on the "Law of Bode; or, Gaps in the Solar System filled up." Although treating on a specialty, it is nevertheless luminously and pleasantly written, and comes easily within the grasp of the exoteric reader. The somewhat prosy editorial defence of Scotland and Scotchmen, against Mr. Buckle's strictures, is concluded this month. With the exception of an indignant protest against the applicability of the somewhat sweeping term "monkish rabble" to such illustrious names as the Baillies, the Binnings, the Dicksons, the Durhams, the Flemings, the Frasers, the Gillespies, the Garthies, the Halyburtons, the Hendersons, &c., whom Mr. Masson assures us were the flowers of "the intellectual representatives of Scottish Presbyterianism," the paper contains but little beyond what we have had in the two preceding articles on the same subject. "Serfdom in Russia," by Nicholas Rowe; a short article on Mrs. Barrett Browning; an excellent critique on Mr. Alexander Smith's new poem; and some far-sighted and astute comments on the present state of American affairs, from the pen of Mr. Thomas Hughes, conclude the prose portion of the number. Among the poetical contributions, Mr. Edwin Arnold stands *facile princeps*. His stanzas, entitled "Autumna," are strikingly beautiful and picturesque.

*Art-Journal.* The *Art-Journal* gives this month a fine engraving of Guido's "Death of Cleopatra," from the picture in the Royal Collection. The exquisite grace and sweetness of the face, so characteristic of Guido, are preserved in the engraving; but there is nothing in the painting that gives you a conception of the warm-blooded Cleopatra—she that was "with Phœbus' amorous pinches black."



The face might, but for the "aspic" and other accessories, be rather taken for that of some Christian martyr dying for the preservation of her purity or faith. Turner's "Phryne going to the Bath as Venus," from the picture in the National Gallery, is the subject of the second engraving, and few of our readers but are familiar with this work, depicting the gay, sensual Athenian life in its wildest revelry, in the foreground, with a country behind rich in gorgeous architecture and natural beauty, and fading away in the golden sunlight into an almost interminable horizon. The third engraving represents Mr. Noble's fine sculpture, the Angels, Life, Death, and Resurrection, one of the most successful of the imaginative works of this artist.

*Fraser's.* The first instalment of a new novel by the author of *Guy Livingstone* opens the present number of *Fraser*. It is entitled "Barren Honour," and the scene is laid in the immediate neighbourhood of Birmingham, of which, under the name of Newnham, a graphic description is given in the opening chapter. The leading characters in the novel are taken from the aristocratic families of the Mauleverers and the Vavasours, and there is a short but stirring account of a bitter contest between these two old houses during the Wars of the Roses, which reminds one of the deadliest feuds of border history. The chapters in the present number are, of course, only introductory, but they are very powerfully written, and give promise of a plot of exceeding interest. This is followed by an account of the Literature and Philosophy of the early Christian ascetics; and this again succeeded by an Essay of A. K. H. B.'s, which, on the whole, we think one of the best that has appeared under this well-known signature. He has given it the suggestive title of "Gone," and it calls up forcibly in our minds the deep pathos which this word assumes throughout the whole of our social existence, and dwells long upon the vacant and altered appearance which the home of our childhood presents when all whom we had then known are "gone," and its walls are tenanted by strangers. The key-note of the article seems to have been, rather than Tennyson's poem of the "May Queen" which the author quotes, some lines from Longfellow's "Golden Legend," which he does not:—

"In vain; our memories may retrace  
Each circumstance of time and place,  
Season and scene come back again,  
And outward things unchanged remain;  
The rest we cannot re-instate,  
Ourselves we cannot re-create,  
Nor set our souls to the same key  
As the remembered harmony."

There is a long article on the great social question which was the subject of the Belgravia lament, and a letter on Homœopathy, by Sir Benjamin Brodie, which has been liberally quoted from in the daily press.

*St. James's.* Mrs. S. C. Hall's Magazine evinces a marked improvement in the number for September. We have less quantity and more quality. "The Royal Mint" is an entertaining and instructive paper, containing much useful information, conveyed in a pleasant, chatty manner; the subject being one of those "common things" which are always interesting to every class of readers. The editor's serial story, "Can Wrong be Right?" is continued with undiminished power; the plot is rapidly making headway, the incidents being naturally, yet artistically, evolved, with all the concomitants of brilliancy of style, grace of expression, and intimate knowledge of character, which have earned for the talented authoress her present high position among the novelists of the day. Mr. Anthony Trollope contributes an able historical article on our National Gallery, evincing no inconsiderable pains and research. The chief remaining features in the number are the concluding chapter of "Nadione Spetione," a powerfully written and absorbing story, worthy in every respect of the author of *Paul Ferroll*; "English Music," for the excellence of which the name of the Rev. J. E. Cox, M.A., F.S.A., is a sufficient guarantee; and a very able paper on the religious, moral, and social progress of Ireland during the last half-century, under the somewhat quaint heading of "Something

of What the Queen Will See and Will Not See in Ireland," from the pen of Mr. S. C. Hall. Of Mr. Thomas Hood's lines on "A Shell," "The Charm Doctor," and "The Domestic Grievance," we cannot speak in very high terms of commendation. The other articles are, however, by themselves more than sufficient to maintain the reputation of the magazine.

*Blackwood.* The current number of "Maga" strikes us as being unusually heavy both in style and *matériel*. The opening article, "Scotland and her Accusers," is, as might have been expected from the title, directed principally against Mr. Buckle's "Civilization in Scotland." While fully exposing the errors into which Mr. Buckle has occasionally fallen in the treatment of his subject, it nevertheless does full justice to the profound erudition and pre-eminently scientific method of the English philosopher, and is written in a much more temperate and unprejudiced tone than the generality of the comments on this score subject that have emanated from the Scottish press. The "Rector" is a prosy and altogether unnatural story, and is utterly unworthy of figuring among the world-famed "Tales from Blackwood." The writer falls into the vulgar error—exploded, we should have imagined, half a century ago—of supposing that because a man has been for fifteen years a fellow of his College, he is necessarily an ill-mannered barbarian, unacquainted with the decencies of polite life, and altogether unfit for the society of ladies. Much more in *Maga's* old style is the paper entitled "Meditations on Dyspepsia," which is pleasant, gossiping, and instructive. "Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy" is likewise an agreeable article, and if it does not quite give our old friend a new face, embodies nevertheless many ingenious and novel comments on a somewhat "used-up" and threadbare subject. "The Persian War of 1856-7" is a graphic and vigorous sketch, in which we fancy we can recognise traces of a familiar pen. Unless, also, we are mistaken, "A Day at Antwerp—Rubens and Ruskin," comes from the same anvil on which not long ago Mr. Ruskin's ideas of perspective were so roughly hammered. It is decidedly the gem of the number. "The Art-Student in Rome," a very able paper, and one which will doubtless be read with interest by the artistic community, is the last on our list. A notice of this month's *Blackwood* would, however, be incomplete without a word of praise for the pithy combination of polished irony and quaint humour in the lines entitled "The Memory of Monbodo—an excellent new Song."

*Temple Bar.* The current number of the *Temple Bar* opens with a very pleasant and piquant instalment of Mr. Sala's serial story. "The Seven Sons of Mammon," albeit not so fertile in the special quality of exaggerative grotesqueness which we are accustomed to look for in Mr. Sala's productions, nevertheless exhibits a much greater unity of design and a stronger adherence to probabilities than one would have been led to expect from his previous ventures into the department of fiction. "My Convict Experiences" is an able and comprehensive paper, *malgré* the somewhat stale and threadbare subject. The last instalment of "For Better, for Worse," is about on a par with those which have preceded it. For a serial it is very feeble, utterly deficient in either incident or interest, and in point of style seldom rises above the level of mediocrity. A chatty paper on the beard and moustache movement, under the somewhat comprehensive title of "All about Hair and Beards," an excellent review of the recent Wimbledon meeting, embodying many sound practical suggestions; an amusing and clever sketch, "The Corporal's Story," by the author of "John's Wife," are the most noteworthy features in the number. "The River"—the eighth in the charming series of "London Poems"—is written with considerable pathos and genuine poetic feeling. We regret that we cannot say as much for Mr. Alfred Austin's "Lady Mabel," which strikes us as exceedingly tame and commonplace, both in thought and expression.

## BOOKS ANNOUNCED.

- Almard (G.), *The White Scalper*, 12mo, 2s. Ward and Lock.  
Aston (J. K.), *Income Tax Tables*, for 6d. and 9d. in the pound, new edition, 8vo, 1s. Passmore.  
Bigg (J.), *Revised Statute Book*, part 7, post 8vo, 1s. 1d. Waterlow.  
Brewer (Dr.), *Guide to Grecian History*, third edition, 18mo, 3s. 6d. Jarrold.  
British Library: Ossoli (M. F.), *Summer on the Lakes*, 12mo, 2s. Ward and Lock.  
Caron (J.), *First French Reading-Book*, 12mo, 1s. Simpkin, Charley and Georgy, or the Children at Gibraltar, 18mo, 1s. Routledge.  
Charlie's Cheerful Nursery Stories, royal 8vo, 2s. 6d. Ward and Lock.  
Concelled (The Pig, new edition, 12mo, 1s. Mozley.  
Crawford (A.), *Huntley Casket*, and other Tales and Lyrics, 12mo, 3s. 6d. Houlston.  
Cyclopaedia of Popular Songs, new edition, two series, 1s. 6d. each, 1 vol. 3s. Tegg.  
Davis (E.), *Pictures from the Mind's Eye*, 12mo, 1s. 6d. Houlston.  
Eadie (J.), *Analytical Concordance to Holy Scripture*, third edition, post 8vo, 8s. 6d. Griffin.  
Farr (E.), *Manual of Geography, Physical and Political*, new edition, 12mo, 2s. Jarrold.  
Friarswood Post Office, by Author of "Heir of Redclyffe," third edition, 18mo, 2s. 6d. Mozley.  
Friendly Truths for Working Houses, 12mo, 1s. 6d. Knight.  
Goethe's Torquato Tasso, translated into English Verse, post 8vo, 3s. 6d. Nutt.  
Goodwin (H.), *Elementary Dynamics*, 12mo, 3s. Bell.  
Goodwin (H.), *Elementary Statics*, 12mo, 3s. Bell.  
Home Life of English Ladies in Seventeenth Century, second edition, 12mo, 6s. Bell.  
Hull (E.), *Coal Fields of Great Britain*, second edition, post 8vo, 10s. Stanford.  
Knight's (Miss Cornelia) *Autobiography*, third edition, 2 vols., 8vo, 20s. Allen.  
Landmarks of Ancient History, fifth edition, 12mo, 2s. 6d. Mozley.  
Lang (J.), *Wanderings in India*, new edition, 12mo, 2s. Routledge.  
Leighton (A.), *Court of Cacus, or Story of Burke and Hare*, 12mo, 3s. Houlston.  
Lewis (C. E.), *Bankruptcy Manual*, post 8vo, 2s. Richardson.  
Lord (Clara), *The Woodbine Poems*, 12mo, 3s. Manwaring.  
Mant (Walter B.), *Chrysothoros and other Poems*, post 8vo, 6s. Bell.  
Minutes of the Wesleyan Conference, 1861, 12mo, 1s. 4d. Mason.  
Mysteries, or Faith the Knowledge of God, 2 vols., 8vo, 30s. Manwaring.  
Parish of Linwood, or Who is Responsible, by J. G., 12mo, 3s. Houlston.  
Parlour Library, vol. cxlvi.: *White Wolf of Brittany*, 12mo, 2s.  
Parlour Library: *Lover (S.)*, Handy Andy, new edition, 12mo, 2s.  
Perfect Cure's (The) *Comic Songs*, 4to, 1s. Sheard.  
Peverley and Hall's *New Bankruptcy Law*, 12mo, 1s. Houlston.  
Pigeon Pie, by author of "Heir of Redclyffe," second edition, 18mo, 1s. Mozley.  
St. John (P. B.), *Quadrone, or Slave Mother*, 12mo, 2s. Lea.  
Smith (J. W.), *Handy-Book of Law of Bankruptcy*, 12mo 1s. E. Wilson.  
Steinmetz (A.), *Military Gymnastics of the French*, 8vo, 1s. Mitchell.  
Stephens's List of Principal London Shippers to all Parts of the World, 32mo, 1s. and 2s. 6d. Lettis.  
Vieland (J.), *Stepping Stone to Translation of Conversational French into English*, 12mo, 1s. 6d. Jarrold.  
Voice of Thanksgiving, Passages in Prose and Verse, 18mo, 1s. 6d. Knight.  
Wade (J. A.), *History of St. Mary's Abbey, Melrose*, post 8vo, 9s. 6d. Hamilton.  
Walker's Dictionary and Key, by Davis, 8vo, 5s. Tegg.  
Wallace (A.), *Bible and the Working Classes*, new edition, 12mo, 1s. 6d. Hamilton.  
Wild Flowers, by Alice T., 18mo, 1s. Darton.  
Yelverton (Mrs.), *Martyrs to Circumstance*, parts II. and III., 3s., 1 vol., 5s. Bentley.  
Young Naturalist's Library: Adams (W. C.), *Nests and Eggs*, new edition, square 16mo, 1s.

## THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

Manchester, September 4th.

THE general meeting of the British Association, held this evening in the famous Free-Trade Hall at Manchester, may be reckoned a brilliant success, and, so far, justifies the General Committee in having selected the great northern Cottonopolis as the scene of this, their thirty-first session. The magnificent chamber, in which the great League held its meetings, and in which Mr. Bright has once and again poured forth his demagogic charlatany, has tonight been crowned to the roof with an attentive audience, listening not to the wrongs of the great Unwashed, nor to the misdemeanours of a "bloated aristocracy," exaggerated by the fluent oratory and powerful voice of the great Brummagem demagogue,

but to a comprehensive sketch of the position of modern science, from Mr. W. Fairbairn, the celebrated engineer, and President of the Association. The address itself your readers will have in full. Of its delivery I cannot speak very highly. Mr. Fairbairn's voice is somewhat weak, and a weak voice in so vast a space as the Free-Trade Hall has very little chance of passing itself off as strong.

On the whole, the Address was very favourably received, and Mr. Fairbairn's reputation as President will probably equal his renown as engineer. Lord Wriothlesley, in resigning the presidency, seemed to be uttering something beyond conventional compliments when he remarked that his successor was notable for combining great practical genius with a thorough appreciation of the worth and indispensability of theoretical science. The Address shows that this eulogy is not unmerited.

The following is the list of the Presidents and Secretaries of Sections who were proposed at the meeting of the General Committee, held in the Town Hall this afternoon:—

#### SECTION A.—*Mathematical and Physical Science.*

President: G. B. Airy, D.C.L., F.R.S., Astronomer Royal.

Secretaries: Professor Stevelly, LL.D.; Professor H. J. S. Smith, M.A., F.R.S.; R. B. Clifton, Esq., M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Owens College.

#### SECTION B.—*Chemical Science.*

President: W. A. Miller, M.D., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry, King's College, London.

Secretaries: G. D. Liveing, M.A., F.C.S.; A. Vernon Harcourt, M.A., F.C.S.

#### SECTION C.—*Geology.*

President: Sir R. I. Murchison, G.C.St.S., D.C.L., F.R.S., Director of the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom.

Secretaries: Edward Hull, Esq., F.G.S.; G. W. Ormerod, Esq., M.A., F.G.S.

#### SECTION D.—*Zoology and Botany, including Physiology.*

President: C. C. Babington, Esq., M.A., F.R.S., Professor of Botany, Cambridge.

Secretaries: E. Lankester, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.L.S.; Percival Wright, M.D., M.R.I.A.; P. Sclater, Esq., M.A.; Thomas Alcock, M.D.

#### SECTION E.—*Geography and Ethnology.*

President: John Crawford, Esq., F.R.S., President of the Ethnographical Society, London.

Secretaries: Norton Shaw, M.D., Sec. R.G.S.; Thomas Wright, Esq., F.S.A.; Dr. James Hunt.

#### SECTION F.—*Economic Science and Statistics.*

President: William Newmarch, Esq., F.R.S.  
Secretaries: Rev. J. E. T. Rogers, M.A., Tookian Professor of Political Economy, King's College, London; Edmund Macrory, Esq., M.A.; R. C. Christie, Esq., M.A., Professor of History, Owens College; David Chadwick, Esq.

#### SECTION G.—*Mechanical Science.*

President: J. F. Bateman, Esq., C.E., F.R.S.  
Secretaries: Henry Wright, Esq.; P. Le Neve Foster, Esq.; John Robinson, Esq.

#### THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Gentlemen of the British Association,—Ever since my election to the high office I now occupy, I have been deeply sensible of my own unfitness for a post of so much distinction and responsibility. And when I call to mind the illustrious men who have preceded me in this chair, and see around me so many persons much better qualified for the office than myself, I feel the novelty of my position and unfeigned embarrassment in addressing you.

I should, however, very imperfectly discharge the duties which devolve upon me, as the successor of the distinguished nobleman who presided over the meetings of last year, if I neglected to thank you for the honourable position in which you have placed me, and to express, at the outset, my gratitude to those valued friends with whom I have been united for many years in the labours of the Sections of this Association, and from whom I have invariably received every mark of esteem.

A careful perusal of the history of this Association will demonstrate that it was the first, and for a long time the only institution, which brought together for a common object the learned Professors of our Universities, and the workers in practical science. These periodical reunions have been of incalculable benefit, in giving to practice that soundness of principle and certainty of progressive improvement, which can only be obtained by the accurate study of science and its application to the arts. On the other hand, the men of actual practice have reciprocated the benefits thus received from theory, in testing by actual experiment deductions which were doubtful, and rectifying those which were erroneous. Guided by an extended experience, and exercising a sound and disciplined judgment, they have often corrected theories apparently accurate, but nevertheless founded on incomplete data or on false assumptions inadvertently introduced. If the British Association had effected nothing more than the removal of the anomalous separation of theory and practice, it would have gained imperishable renown in the benefit thus conferred.

Were I to enlarge on the relation of the achievements of science to the comforts and enjoyments of man, I should have to refer to the present epoch as one of the most important in the history of the world. At no former period did science contribute so much to the uses of life and the wants of society. And in doing this it has only been fulfilling that mission which Bacon, the great father of modern science, appointed for it, when he wrote that "the legitimate goal of the sciences is the endowment of human life with new inventions and riches," and when he sought for a natural philosophy which, not spending its energy on barren disquisitions, "should be operative for the benefit and endowment of mankind."

Looking, then, to the fact that, whilst in our time all the sciences have yielded this fruit, Engineering science, with which I have been most intimately connected, has pre-eminently advanced the power, the wealth, and the comforts of mankind, I shall probably best discharge the duties of the office I have the honour to fill, by stating as briefly as possible the more recent scientific discoveries which have so influenced the relations of social life. I shall, therefore, not dwell so much on the progress of abstract science, important as that is, but shall rather endeavour briefly to examine the application of science to the useful arts, and the results which have followed, and are likely to follow, in the improvement of the condition of society.

The history of man throughout the gradations and changes which he undergoes in advancing from a primitive barbarism to a state of civilization, shows that he has been chiefly stimulated to the cultivation of science and the development of his inventive powers, by the urgent necessity of providing for his wants and securing his safety. There is no nation, however barbarous, which does not inherit the germs of civilization, and there is scarcely any which has not done something towards applying the rudiments of science to the purposes of daily life.

Amongst the South Sea Islanders, when discovered by Cook, the applied sciences—if I may use the term—were not entirely unknown. They had observed something of the motions of the heavenly bodies, and watched with interest their revolutions, in order to apply this knowledge to the division of time. They were not entirely deficient in the construction of instruments of husbandry, of war, and of music. They had made themselves acquainted with the rudiments of shipbuilding and navigation, in the construction and management of their canoes. Cut off from the influence of European civilization, and deprived of intercourse with higher grades of mind, we still find the inherent principle of progression exhibiting itself, and the inventive and reasoning powers developed in the attempt to secure the means of subsistence.

Again, if we compare man as he exists in small communities with his condition where large numbers are congregated together, we find that densely populated countries are the most prolific in inventions, and advance most rapidly in science. Because the wants of the many are greater than those of the few, there is a more vigorous struggle against the natural limitations of supply, a more careful hus-

banding of resources, and there are more minds at work.

This fact is strikingly exemplified in the history of Mexico and Peru, and its attestation is found in the numerous monuments of the past which are seen in Central America, where the remains of cities and temples, and vast public works, erected by a people endowed with high intellectual acquirements, can still be traced. There have been discovered a system of canals for irrigation; long mining galleries cut in the solid rock, in search of lead, tin, and copper; pyramids not unlike those of Egypt; earthenware vases and cups, and manuscripts containing the records of their history; all testifying to so high a degree of scientific culture and practical skill, that looking at the cruelties which attended the conquests of Cortes and Pizarro, we may well hesitate as to which had the stronger claims on our sympathy, the victors or the vanquished.

In attempting to notice those branches of science with which I am but imperfectly acquainted, I shall have to claim your indulgence. This Association, as you are aware, does not confine its discussions and investigations to any particular science; and one great advantage of this is, that it leads to the division of labour, whilst the attention which each department receives, and the harmony with which the plan has hitherto worked, afford the best guarantee of its wisdom and proof of its success.

#### ASTRONOMY.

In the early history of Astronomy, how vague and unsatisfactory were the wild theories and conjectures which supplied the place of demonstrated physical truths and carefully observed laws! How immeasurably small, what a very speck does man appear, with all the wonders of his invention, when contrasted with the mighty works of the Creator; and how imperfect is our apprehension, even in the highest flights of poetic imagination, of the boundless depths of space! These reflections naturally suggest themselves in the contemplation of the works of an Almighty Power, and impress the mind with a reverential awe for the great Author of our existence.

The great revolution which laid the foundation of modern Astronomy, and which, indeed, marks the birth of modern physical science, is chiefly due to three or four distinguished philosophers. Tycho Brahe, by his system of accurate measurement of the positions of the heavenly bodies; Copernicus, by his theory of the solar system; Galileo, by the application of the telescope; and Kepler, by the discovery of the laws of the planetary motions, all assisted in advancing, by prodigious strides, towards a true knowledge of the constitution of the universe. It remained for Newton to introduce, at a later period, the idea of an attraction varying directly as the mass, and inversely as the square of the distance, and thus to reduce celestial phenomena to the greatest simplicity, by comprehending them under a single law. Without tracing the details of the history of this science, we may notice that in more recent times astronomical discoveries have been closely connected with high mechanical skill in the construction of instruments of precision. The telescope has enormously increased the catalogue of the fixed stars, or those "landmarks of the universe," as Sir John Herschel terms them, "which never deceive the astronomer, navigator, or surveyor." The number of known planets and asteroids has also been greatly enlarged. The discovery of Uranus resulted immediately from the perfection attained by Sir William Herschel in the construction of his telescope. More recently, the structure of the nebulae has been unfolded through the application to their study of the colossal telescope of Lord Rosse. In all these directions much has been done both by our present distinguished Astronomer Royal, and also by amateur observers in private observatories, all of whom, with Mr. Lassells at their head, are making rapid advances in this department of physical science.

Our knowledge of the physical constitution of the central body of our system seems likely, at the present time, to be much increased. The spots on the sun's disk were noticed by Galileo and his contemporaries, and enabled them to ascertain the time of its rotation and the inclination of its axis. They also correctly inferred, from their appearance, the



existence of a luminous envelope, in which funnel-shaped depressions revealed a solid and dark nucleus. Just a century ago, Alexander Wilson indicated the presence of a second and less luminous envelope beneath the outer stratum, and his discovery was confirmed by Sir William Herschel, who was led to assume the presence of a double stratum of clouds, the upper intensely luminous, the lower grey, and forming the penumbra of the spots. Observations during eclipses have rendered probable the supposition that a third and outermost stratum of imperfect transparency encloses concentrically the other envelopes. Still more recently, the remarkable discoveries of Kirchhoff and Bunsen require us to believe that a solid or liquid photosphere is seen through an atmosphere containing iron, sodium, lithium, and other metals in a vaporous condition.

We must still wait for the application of more perfect instruments, and especially for the careful registering of the appearances of the sun by the photoheliograph of Sir John Herschel, so ably employed by Mr. Warren de la Rue, Mr. Welsh, and others, before we can expect a solution of all the problems thus suggested.

## MAGNETISM.

Guided by the same principles which have been so successful in Astronomy, its sister science, Magnetism, emerging from its infancy, has of late advanced rapidly in that stage of development which is marked by assiduous and systematic observation of the phenomena, by careful analysis and presentation of the facts which they disclose, and by the grouping of these in generalizations, which, when the basis on which they rest shall be more extended, will prepare the way for the conception of a general physical theory, in which all the phenomena shall be comprehended, whilst each shall receive its separate and satisfactory explanation.

It is unnecessary to remind you of the deep interest which the British Association has at all times taken in the advancement of this branch of natural knowledge, or of the specific recommendations which, made in conjunction with the Royal Society, have been productive of such various and important results. To refer but to a single instance; we have seen those magnetic disturbances, so mysterious in their origin and so extensive in simultaneous prevalence,—and which, less than twenty years ago, were designated by a term specially denoting that their laws were wholly unknown,—traced to laws of periodical recurrence, revealing, without a doubt, their origin in the central body of our system, by inequalities which have for their respective periods, the solar day, the solar year, and still more remarkably, an until lately unsuspected solar cycle of about ten of our terrestrial years, to whose existence they bear testimony in conjunction with the solar spots; but whose nature and causes are in all other respects still wrapped in entire obscurity. We owe to General Sabine, especially, the recognition and study of these and other solar magnetic influences and of the magnetic influence of the moon similarly attested by concurrent determinations in many parts of the globe, which are now held to constitute a distinct branch of this science not inappropriately named “celestial,” as distinguished from purely terrestrial magnetism.

## CHEMISTRY.

We ought not in this town to forget that the very rapid advance which has been made in our time by Chemistry, is due to the law of equivalents, or atomic theory, first discovered by our townsman, John Dalton. Since the development of this law its progress has been unimpeded, and it has had a most direct bearing on the comforts and enjoyments of life. A knowledge of the constituents of food has led to important deductions as to the relative nutritive value and commercial importance of different materials. Water has been studied in reference to the deleterious impurities with which it is so apt to be contaminated in its distribution to the inhabitants of large towns. The power of analysis, which enables us to detect adulterations, has been invaluable to the public health, and would be much more so, if it were possible to obviate the difficulties which have prevented the operation of recent legislation on this subject.

We have another proof of the utility of this science in its application to medicine; and the estimation in which it is held by the medical profession is the true index of its value in the diagnosis and treatment of disease. The largest developments of Chemistry, however, have been in connection with the useful arts. What would now be the condition of calico-printing, bleaching, dyeing, and even agriculture itself, if they had been deprived of the aid of theoretic Chemistry?

For example: Aniline—first discovered in coal tar by Dr. Hoffman, who has so admirably developed its properties—is now most extensively used as the basis of red, blue, violet, and green dyes. This important discovery will probably in a few years render this country independent of the world for dye-stuffs; and it is more than probable that England, instead of drawing her dye-stuffs from foreign countries, may herself become the centre from which all the world will be supplied.

It is an interesting fact that at the same time in another branch of this science, M. Tournet has lately demonstrated that the colours of gems, such as the emerald, aqua-marina, amethyst, smoked rock crystal, and others, are due to volatile hydrocarbons, first noticed by Sir David Brewster in clouded topaz, and that they are not derived from metallic oxides, as has been hitherto believed.

Another remarkable advance has recently been made by Bunsen and Kirchhoff in the application of the coloured rays of the prism to analytical research. We may consider their discoveries as the commencement of a new era in analytical Chemistry, from the extraordinary facilities they afford in the qualitative detection of the minutest traces of elementary bodies. The value of the method has been proved by the discovery of the new metals Cæsium and Rubidium by M. Bunsen, and it has yielded another remarkable result in demonstrating the existence of iron, and six other known metals, in the sun.

In noticing the more recent discoveries in this important science, I must not pass over in silence the valuable light which Chemistry has thrown upon the composition of iron and steel. Although Despretz demonstrated many years ago that iron would combine with nitrogen, yet it was not until 1857 that Mr. C. Binks proved that nitrogen is an essential element of steel, and more recently M. Carou and M. Fremy have further elucidated this subject; the former showing that cyanogen, or cyanide of ammonium, is the essential element which converts wrought iron into steel; the latter combining iron with nitrogen through the medium of ammonia, and then converting it into steel by bringing it at the proper temperature into contact with common coal gas. There is little doubt that in a few years these discoveries will enable Sheffield manufacturers to replace their present uncertain, cumbersome, and expensive process, by a method at once simple and inexpensive, and so completely under control as to admit of any required degree of conversion being obtained with absolute certainty. Mr. Crace Calvert also has proved that cast-iron contains nitrogen, and has shown that it is a definite compound of carbon and iron mixed with various proportions of metallic iron, according to its nature.

Before leaving chemical science, I must refer to the interesting discovery by M. Deville, by which he succeeded in rapidly melting thirty-eight or forty pounds of platinum,—a metal till then considered almost infusible. This discovery will render the extraction of platinum from the ore more perfect, and, by reducing its cost, will greatly facilitate its application to the arts.

## GEOLOGY.

It is little more than half a century since Geology assumed the distinctive character of a science. Taking into consideration the aspects of nature in different epochs of the history of the earth, it has been found that the study of the changes at present going on in the world around us enable us to understand the past revolutions of the globe, and the conditions and circumstances under which strata have been formed and organic remains embedded and preserved. The geologist has increasingly tended to believe that the changes which have taken place on the face of the globe, from the earliest times to the present, are the result of agencies still at work. But whilst it is his high office to record the distri-

bution of life in past ages and the evidence of physical changes in the arrangement of land and water, his results hitherto have indicated no traces of its beginning, nor have they afforded evidence of the time of its future duration. Geology has been indebted for this progress very largely to the investigations of Sedgwick and the writings of Sir Charles Lyell.

As an example of the application of Geology to the practical uses of life, I may cite the discovery of the gold fields of Australia, which might long have remained hidden, but for the researches of Sir Roderick Murchison in the Ural Mountains on the geological position of the strata from which the Russian gold is obtained. From this investigation he was led by inductive reasoning to believe that gold would be found in similar rocks, specimens of which had been sent him from Australia. The last years of the active life of this distinguished geologist have been devoted to the re-examination of the rocks of his native Highlands of Scotland. Applying to them those principles of classification which he long since established, he has demonstrated that the crystalline limestone and quartz rocks which are associated with mica schists, &c., belong by their embedded organic remains to the Lower Silurian Rocks. Descending from this well-marked horizon, he shows the existence beneath all such fossiliferous strata of vast masses of sandstone and conglomerate of Cambrian age; and, lastly, he has proved the existence of a fundamental Gneiss, on which all the other rocks repose, and which, occupying the north-western Hebrides and the west coasts of Sutherland and Ross, is the oldest rock formation on the British Isles, it being unknown in England, Wales, or Ireland.

It is well known that the temperature increases, as we descend through the earth's crust, from a certain point near the surface, at which the temperature is constant. In various mines, borings, and Artesian wells, the temperature has been found to increase about 1° Fahrenheit for every sixty or sixty-five feet of descent. In some carefully conducted experiments during the sinking of Dukinfield Deep Mine,—one of the deepest pits in this country,—it was found that a mean increase of about 1° in seventy-one feet occurred. If we take the ratio thus indicated, and assume it to extend to much greater depths, we should reach at two and a half miles from the surface strata at the temperature of boiling water; and at depths of about fifty or sixty miles the temperature would be sufficient to melt, under the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere, the hardest rocks. Reasoning from these facts, it would appear that the mass of the globe, at no great depth, must be in a fluid state. But this deduction requires to be modified by other considerations, namely, the influence of pressure on the fusing point, and the relative conductivity of the rocks which form the earth's crust. To solve these questions a series of important experiments were instituted by Mr. Hopkins, in the prosecution of which Dr. Joule and myself took part; and after a long and laborious investigation, it was found that the temperature of fluidity increased about 1° Fahrenheit for every five hundred pounds pressure, in the case of spermaceti, bees' wax, and other similar substances. However, on extending these experiments to less compressible substances, such as tin and barytes, a similar increase was not observed. But this series of experiments has been unavoidably interrupted; nor is the series on the conductivity of rocks entirely finished. Until they have been completed by Mr. Hopkins, we can only make a partial use of them in forming an opinion of the thickness of the earth's solid crust. Judging, however, alone from the greater conductivity of the igneous rocks, we may calculate that the thickness cannot possibly be less than nearly three times as great as that calculated in the usual suppositions of the conductive power of the terrestrial mass at enormous depths being no greater than that of the superficial sedimentary beds. Other modes of investigation which Mr. Hopkins has brought to bear on this question, appear to lead to the conclusion that the thickness of the earth's crust is much greater even than that above stated. This would require us to assume that a part of the heat in the crust is due to superficial and external, rather than central causes. This does not bear directly against the doctrine of central heat, but shows that only a

part of the increase of temperature observed in mines and deep wells is due to the outward flow of that heat.

#### BOTANY AND ZOOLOGY.

Touching these highly-interesting branches of science, Botany and Zoology, it may be considered presumptuous in me to offer any remarks. I have, however, not entirely neglected, in my earlier days, to inform myself of certain portions of natural history, which cannot but be attractive to all who delight in the wonderful beauties of natural objects. How interesting is the organization of animals and plants; how admirably adapted to their different functions and spheres of life. They want nothing, yet have nothing superfluous. Every organ is adapted perfectly to its functions; and the researches of Owen, Agassiz, Darwin, Hooker, Daubeny, Babbington, and Jardine fully illustrate the perfection of the animal and vegetable economy of Nature.

#### GEOGRAPHY AND ETHNOLOGY.

Two other important branches of scientific research, Geography and Ethnology, have for some years been united, in this Association, in one section, and that probably the most attractive and popular of them all. We are much indebted to Sir Roderick Murchison, among other members of the Association, for its continued prosperity, and the high position it has attained in public estimation. The spirit of enterprise, courage, and perseverance displayed by our travellers in all parts of the world have been powerfully stimulated and well supported by the Geographical Society; and the prominence and rapid publicity given to discoveries by that body have largely promoted geographical research.

In Physical Geography the late Baron von Humboldt has been one of the largest contributors, and we are chiefly indebted to his personal researches and numerous writings for the elevated position it now holds among the sciences. To Humboldt we owe our knowledge of the physical features of Central and Southern America. To Parry, Sir James Ross, and Scoresby, we are indebted for discoveries in the Arctic and Antarctic regions. Geography has also been advanced by the first voyage of Franklin down the Copper-Mine River, and along the inhospitable shores of the Northern Seas, as far as Point Turnagain; as also by that ill-fated expedition in search of a north-west passage; followed by others in search of the unfortunate men who perished in their attempt to reach those ice-bound regions, so often stimulated by the untiring energy of a high-minded woman. In addition to these, the discoveries of Dr. Livingstone in Africa have opened to us a wide field of future enterprise along the banks of the Zambesi and its tributaries. To these we may add the explorations of Captain Burton in the same continent, and those also by Captain Speke and Captain Grant, of a hitherto unknown region, in which it has been suggested that the White Nile has its source, flowing from one of two immense lakes, upwards of three hundred miles long by one hundred broad, and situated at an elevation of four thousand feet above the sea. To these remarkable discoveries I ought to add an honourable mention of the sagacious and perilous exploration of Central and Northern Australia by Mr. McDouall Stuart.

#### APPLIED MECHANICS.

Having glanced, however imperfectly, at some of the most important branches of science which engage the attention of Members of this Association, I would now invite attention to the mechanical sciences, with which I am more familiarly acquainted. They may be divided into theoretical Mechanics and Dynamics, comprising the conditions of equilibrium and the laws of motion; and Applied Mechanics, relating to the construction of machines. I have already observed that practice and theory are twin sisters, and must work together to ensure a steady progress in mechanical art. Let us then maintain this union as the best and safest basis of national progress, and, moreover, let us recognise it as one of the distinctive aims of the annual reunions of this Association.

During the last century the science of Applied Mechanics has made strides which astonish us by

their magnitude; but even these, it may reasonably be hoped, are but the promise of future and more wonderful enlargements. I therefore propose to offer a succinct history of these improvements, as an instance of the influence of scientific progress on the well-being of society. I shall take in review the three chief aids which engineering science has afforded to national progress, namely, canals, steam navigation, and railways; each of which has promoted an incalculable extension of the industrial resources of the country.

#### Canals.

One hundred years ago, the only means for the conveyance of inland merchandise were the pack-horses and waggons on the then imperfect highways. It was reserved for Brindley, Smeaton, and others, to introduce a system of canals, which opened up facilities for an interchange of commodities at a cheaper rate over almost every part of the country. The impetus given to industrial operations by this new system of conveyance induced capitalists to embark in trade, in mining, and in the extension of manufactures in almost every district. These improvements continued for a series of years, until the whole country was intersected by canals requisite to meet the demands of a greatly extended industry. But canals, however well adapted for the transport of minerals and merchandise, were less suited for the conveyance of passengers. The speed of the canal boats seldom exceeded from two and a half to three miles an hour, and in addition to this, the projectors of canals sometimes sought to take an unfair advantage of the Act of Parliament, which fixed the tariff at so much per ton per mile, by adopting circuitous routes, under the erroneous impression that mileage was a consideration of great importance in the success of such undertakings. It is in consequence of short-sighted views and imperfect legislation that we inherit the numerous curves and distortions of our canal system.

These defects in construction rendered canals almost useless for the conveyance of passengers, and led to the improvement of the common roads and the system of stage coaches; so that before the year 1830 the chief public highways of the country had attained a remarkable smoothness and perfection, and the lightness of our carriages and the celerity with which they were driven still excites the admiration of those who remember them. These days of an efficiently worked system, which tasked the power and speed of the horse to the utmost, have now been succeeded by changes more wonderful than any that previously occurred in the history of the human race.

#### Steam Navigation.

Scarcely had the canal system been fully developed when a new means of propulsion was adopted, namely, steam. I need not recount to you the enterprise, skill, and labour that have been exerted in connection with steam navigation. You have seen its results on every river and every sea; results we owe to the fruitful minds of Miller, Symington, Fulton, and Henry Bell, who were the pioneers in the great march of progress.

Viewing the past, with a knowledge of the present and a prospect of the future, it is difficult to estimate sufficiently the benefits that have been conferred by this application of mechanical science to the purposes of navigation. Power, speed, and certainty of action, have been attained on the most gigantic scale. The celerity with which a modern steamer, with a thousand tons of merchandise and some hundreds of human beings on board, cleaves the water and pursues her course, far surpasses the most sanguine expectations of a quarter of a century ago, and indeed almost rivals the speed of the locomotive itself. Previous to 1812 our intercourse with foreign countries and with our colonial possessions depended entirely upon the state of the weather. It was only in favourable seasons that a passage was open, and we had often to wait days, or even a week, before Dublin could be reached from Holyhead. Now this distance of sixty-three miles is accomplished in all weathers in little more than three hours. The passage to America used to occupy six weeks or two months; now it is accom-

plished in eight or nine days. The passage round the Cape to India is reduced from nearly half a year to less than a third of that time, whilst that country may be reached by the overland route in less than a month. These are a few of the benefits derived from steam navigation, and as it is yet far from perfect, we may reasonably calculate on still greater advantages in our intercourse with distant nations.

I will not here enter upon the subject of the numerous improvements which have so rapidly advanced the progress of this important service. Suffice it to observe that the paddle-wheel system of propulsion has maintained its superiority over every other method yet adopted for the attainment of speed, as by it the best results are obtained with the least expenditure of power. In ships of war the screw is indispensable, on account of the security it affords to the engines and machinery, from their position in the hold below the water line, and because of the facility it offers in the use of sails, when the screw is raised from its position in the well to a recess in the stern prepared for that purpose. It is also preferable in ships which require auxiliary power in calms and adverse winds, so as to expedite the voyage and effect a considerable saving upon the freight.

#### Railways.

The public mind had scarcely recovered itself from the changes which steam navigation had caused, and the impulse it had given to commerce, when a new and even more gigantic power of locomotion was inaugurated. Less than a quarter of a century had elapsed since the first steam-boats floated on the waters of the Hudson and the Clyde, when the achievements thence resulting were followed by the application of the same agency to the almost superhuman flight of the locomotive and its attendant train. I well remember the competition at Rainhill in 1825, and the incredulity everywhere evinced at the proposal to run locomotives at twenty miles an hour. Neither George Stephenson himself, nor any one else, had at that time the most distant idea of the capabilities of the railway system. On the contrary, it was generally considered impossible to exceed ten or twelve miles an hour; and our present high velocities, due to high-pressure steam and the tubular system of boilers, have surpassed the most sanguine expectations of engineers. The sagacity of George Stephenson at once seized upon the suggestion of Henry Booth, to employ tubular boilers; and that, united to the blast-pipe, previously known, has been the means of effecting all the wonders we now witness in a system that has done more for the development of practical science and the civilization of man, than any discovery since the days of Adam.

#### The Steam-Engine.

From a consideration of the changes which have been effected in the means for the interchange of commodities, I pass on to examine the progress which has been made in their production. And as the steam-engine has been the basis of all our modern manufacturing industry, I shall glance at the steps by which it has been perfected.

Passing over the somewhat mythical fame of the Marquis of Worcester, and the labours of Savery, Beighton, and Newcomen, we may come at once to discuss the state of mechanical art at the time when James Watt brought his gigantic powers to the improvement of the steam-engine. At that time the tools were of the rudest construction, nearly everything being done by hand, and, in consequence, wood was much more extensively employed than iron. Under these circumstances Watt invented separate condensation, rendered the engine double-acting, and converted its rectilinear motion into a circular one suitable for the purposes of manufacture. But the discovery at first made little way, the public did not understand it, and a series of years elapsed before the difficulties, commercial and mechanical, which opposed its application, could be overcome. When the certainty of success had been demonstrated, Watt was harassed by infringements of his patent, and lawsuits for the maintenance of his rights. Inventors, and pretended inventors, set up claims, and entered into combination with manu-



facturers, miners, and others, to destroy the patent and deprive him of the just fruits of his labour and genius. Such is the selfish heartlessness of mankind in dealing with discoveries not their own, but from which they expect to derive benefit.

The steam-engine, since it was introduced by Watt, has changed our habits in almost every condition of life. Things which were luxuries have become necessities, and it has given to the poor man, in all countries in which it exists, a degree of comfort and independence, and a participation in intellectual culture, unknown before its introduction. It has increased our manufactures tenfold, and has lessened the barriers which time and space interpose. It ploughs the land, and winnows and grinds the corn. It spins and weaves our textile fabrics. In mining, it pumps, winds, and crushes the ores. It performs these things with powers so great and so energetic as to astonish us at their immensity, whilst they are at the same time perfectly docile, and completely under human control.

In war it furnishes the means of aggression, as in peace it affords the bonds of conciliation; and, in fact, places within reach a power which, properly applied, produces harmony and good-will among men, and leads to the happiest results in every condition of human existence. We may, therefore, well be proud of the honour conferred on this country as the cradle of its origin, and as having fostered its development from its earliest applications to its present high state of perfection.

I cannot conclude this notice of the steam engine without observing the changes it is destined to effect in the cultivation of the soil. It is but a short time since it was thought inapplicable to agricultural purposes, from its great weight and expense. But more recent experience has proved this to be a mistake, and already in most districts we find that it has been pressed into the service of the farm. The small locomotive, mounted on a frame with four wheels, travels from village to village with its attendant, the thrashing-machine, performing the operations of thrashing, winnowing, and cleaning, at less than one-half the cost by the old and tedious process of hand labour. Its application to ploughing and tillage on a large scale is, in my opinion, still in its infancy, and I doubt not that many members of this Association will live to see the steam plough in operation over the whole length and breadth of the land. Much has to be done before this important change can be successfully accomplished; but, with the aid of the agriculturist preparing the land so as to meet the requirements of steam machinery, we may reasonably look forward to a new era in the cultivation of the soil.

#### *Machinery of Manufactures.*

The extraordinary developments of practical science in our system of textile manufacture are, however, not entirely due to the steam engine, although they are now in a great measure dependent on it. The machinery of these manufactures had its origin before the steam engine had been applied, except for mining purposes; and the inventions of Arkwright, Hargreaves, and Crompton, were not conceived under the impression that steam would be their moving power. On the contrary, they depended upon water; and the cotton machinery of this district had attained considerable perfection before steam came to the aid of the manufacturer, and ultimately enabled him to increase the production to its present enormous extent.

I shall not attempt a description of the machinery of the textile manufactures, because ocular inspection will be far more acceptable. I can only refer you to a list of establishments in which you may examine their operations on a large scale, and which I earnestly recommend to your attention. I may, however, advert to a few of the improvements which have marked the progress of the manufacturing system in this country.

When Arkwright patented his water frames in 1767, the annual consumption of cotton was about four million pounds weight. Now it is one thousand two hundred million pounds weight,—three hundred times as much. Within half a century the number of spindles at work, spinning cotton alone, has increased tenfold; whilst, by superior mechan-

ism, each spindle produces fifty per cent. more yarn than on the old system. Hence the importance to which the cotton trade has risen, equalling at the present time the whole revenue of the three kingdoms, or £70,000,000 sterling per annum. As late as 1820 the power-loom was not in existence, now it produces about fourteen million yards of cloth, or, in more familiar terms, nearly eight thousand miles of cloth per diem. I give these particulars to show the immense power of production of this country, and to afford some conception of the number and quality of the machines which effect such wonderful results.

Mule spinning was introduced by Crompton, in 1787, with about twenty spindles to each machine. The powers of the machine were, however, rapidly increased; and now it has been so perfected that two thousand, or even three thousand spindles are directed by a single person. At first the winding on, or forming the shape of the cop, was performed by hand; but this has been superseded by rendering the machine automatic, so that it now performs the whole operation of drawing, stretching, and twisting the thread, and winding it on to the exact form, ready for the reel or shuttle as may be required. These, and other improvements in carding, roving, combing, spinning, and weaving, have established in this country an entirely new system of industry; it has given employment to greatly increased numbers, and a more intelligent class of work-people.

Similarly important improvements have been applied to the machinery employed in the manufacture of silk, flax, and wool; and we have only to watch the processes in these different departments to be convinced that they owe much to the development of the cotton manufacture. In the manufacture of worsted, the spinning jenny was not employed at Bradford until 1790, nor the power loom until about 1825. The production of fancy or mixed goods from Alpaca and Mohair wool, introduced to this country in 1836, is perhaps the most striking example of a new creation in the art of manufacture, and is chiefly due to Mr. Titus Salt, in whose immense palace of industry, at Saltaire, it may be seen in the greatest perfection. In flax machinery, the late Sir Peter Fairbairn was one of the most successful inventors, and his improvements have contributed to the rapid extension of this manufacture.

#### IRON.

I might greatly extend this description of our manufacturing industry, but I must for the present be brief, in order to point out the dependence of all these improvements on the iron and coal so widely distributed amongst the mineral treasures of our island. We are highly favoured in the abundance of these minerals, deposited with an unsparring hand by the great Author of Nature, under so slight a covering as to bring them within reach of the miner's art. To them we owe our present high state of perfection in the useful arts; and to their extended application we may safely attribute our national progress and wealth. So that, looking to the many blessings which we daily and hourly receive from these sources alone, we are impressed with devotional feelings of gratitude to the Almighty for the manifold bounties He has bestowed upon us.

Previously to the inventions of Henry Cort, the manufacture of wrought iron was of the most crude and primitive description. A hearth and a pair of bellows was all that was employed. But since the introduction of puddling, the iron-masters have increased the production to an extraordinary extent, down to the present time, when processes for the direct conversion of wrought iron on a large scale are being attempted. A consecutive series of chemical researches into the different processes, from the calcining of the ore to the production of the bar, carried on by Dr. Percy and others, has led to a revolution in the manufacture of iron; and although it is at the present moment in a state of transition, it nevertheless requires no very great discernment to perceive that steel and iron of any required tenacity will be made in the same furnace, with a facility and certainty never before attained. This has been effected, to some extent, by improvements in puddling; but the process of Mr. Bessemer,—first made known at the meetings of this Association at Cheltenham,—affords the highest promise of cer-

tainty and perfection in the operation of converting the melted pig direct into steel or iron, and is likely to lead to the most important developments in this manufacture. These improvements in the production of the material must, in their turn, stimulate its application on a larger scale and lead to new constructions.

In iron shipbuilding, an immense field is opening before us. Our wooden walls have, to all appearance, seen their last days; and as one of the early pioneers in iron construction, as applied to shipbuilding, I am highly gratified to witness a change of opinion that augurs well for the security of the liberties of the country. From the commencement of iron shipbuilding in 1830 to the present time, there could be only one opinion amongst those best acquainted with the subject, namely, that iron must eventually supersede timber in every form of naval construction. The large ocean steamers, the "Himalaya," the "Persia," and the "Great Eastern," abundantly show what can be done with iron, and we have only to look at the new system of casing ships with armour plates, to be convinced that we can no longer build wooden vessels of war with safety to our naval superiority and the best interests of the country. I give no opinion as to the details of the reconstruction of the navy,—that is reserved for another place,—but I may state that I am fully persuaded that the whole of our ships of war must be rebuilt of iron, and defended with iron armour calculated to resist projectiles of the heaviest description at high velocities.

In the early stages of iron shipbuilding, I believe I was the first to show, by a long series of experiments, the superiority of wrought iron over every other description of material in security and strength, when judiciously applied in the construction of ships of every class. Other considerations, however, affect the question of vessels of war; and although numerous experiments were made, yet none of the targets were on a scale sufficient to resist more than a six-pounder shot. It was reserved for our scientific neighbours, the French, to introduce thick iron plates as a defensive armour for ships. The success which has attended the adoption of this new system of defence affords the prospect of invulnerable ships of war, and hence the desire of the Government to remodel the navy on an entirely new principle of construction, in order that we may retain its superiority as the great bulwarks of the nation. A committee has been appointed by the War Office and the Admiralty for the purpose of carrying out a scientific investigation of the subject, so as to determine,—first, the best description of material to resist projectiles; secondly, the best method of fastening and applying that material to the sides of ships and land fortifications; and, lastly, the thickness necessary to resist the different descriptions of ordnance.

It is asserted, probably with truth, that whatever thickness of plates are adopted for casing ships, guns will be constructed capable of destroying them. But their destruction will even then be a work of time, and I believe, from what I have seen in recent experiments, that with proper armour it will require, not only the most powerful ordnance, but also a great concentration of fire, before fracture will ensue. If this be the case, a well-constructed iron ship, covered with sound plates of the proper thickness, firmly attached to its sides, will, for a considerable time, resist the heaviest guns which can be brought to bear against it, and be practically shot-proof. But our present means are inadequate for the production of large masses of iron, and we may trust that, with new tools and machinery, and the skill, energy, and perseverance of our manufacturers, every difficulty will be overcome, and armour plates produced which will resist the heaviest existing ordnance.

The rifling of heavy ordnance, the introduction of wrought iron, and the new principle of construction with strained hoops, have given to all countries the means of increasing enormously the destructive power of their ordnance. One of the results of this introduction of wrought iron, and correct principles of manufacture, is the reduction of the weight of the new guns to about two-thirds the weight of the older cast-iron ordnance. Hence follows the facility with which guns of much greater power can be worked, whilst the range and precision of fire are at

the same time increased. But these improvements cannot be confined to ourselves. Other nations are increasing the power and range of their artillery in a similar degree, and the energies of the nation must, therefore, be directed to maintain the superiority of our navy in armour as well as in armament.

We have already seen a new era in the history of the construction of bridges, resulting from the use of iron; and we have only to examine those of the tubular form over the Conway and Menai Straits to be convinced of the durability, strength, and lightness of tubular constructions applied to the support of railways or common roads, in spans which, ten years ago, were considered beyond the reach of human skill. When it is considered that stone bridges do not exceed one hundred and fifty feet in span, nor cast-iron bridges two hundred and fifty feet, we can estimate the progress which has been made in crossing rivers four hundred or five hundred feet in width, without any support at the middle of the stream. Even spans, greatly in excess of this, may be bridged over with safety, provided we do not exceed eighteen hundred to two thousand feet, when the structure would be destroyed by its own weight.

It is to the exactitude and accuracy of our machine tools that our machinery of the present time owes its smoothness of motion and certainty of action. When I first entered this city, the whole of the machinery was executed by hand. There were neither planing, slotting, nor shaping machines, and, with the exception of very imperfect lathes and a few drills, the preparatory operations of construction were effected entirely by the hands of the workmen. Now everything is done by machine tools, with a degree of accuracy which the unaided hand could never accomplish. The automaton, or self-acting machine tool, has within itself an almost creative power; in fact, so great are its powers of adaptation, that there is no operation of the human hand that it does not imitate. For many of these improvements the country is indebted to the genius of our townsmen, Mr. Richard Roberts and Mr. Joseph Whitworth. The importance of these constructive machines is, moreover, strikingly exemplified in the Government works at Woolwich and Enfield Lock, chiefly arranged under the direction of Mr. Anderson, the present inspector of machinery, to whose skill and ingenuity the country is greatly indebted for the efficient state of those great armaments.

Amongst the changes which have largely contributed to the comfort and enjoyment of life, are the improvements in the sanitary condition of towns. These belong, probably, to the province of social, rather than mechanical science; but I cannot omit to notice some of the great works that have of late years been constructed for the supply of water, and for the drainage of towns. In former days ten gallons of water to each person per day was considered an ample allowance. Now thirty gallons is much nearer the rate of consumption. I may instance the water-works of this city and of Liverpool, each of which yield a supply of from twenty to thirty gallons of water to each inhabitant. In the former case, the water is collected from the Cheshire and Derbyshire hills, and, after being conveyed in tunnels and aqueducts a distance of ten miles to a reservoir, where it is strained and purified, it is ultimately taken a further distance of eight miles in pipes, in a perfectly pure state, ready for distribution. The greatest undertaking of this kind, however, yet accomplished, is that by which the pure waters of Loch Katrine are distributed to the city of Glasgow. This work, recently completed by Mr. Bateman, who was also the constructor of the water-works of this city, is of the most gigantic character, the water being conveyed in a covered tunnel a distance of twenty-seven miles, through an almost impassable country, to the service reservoir, about eight miles from Glasgow. By this means forty million gallons of water per day are conveyed through the hills which flank Ben Lomond, and, after traversing the sides of Loch Chon and Loch Aird, are finally discharged into the Mugdock basin, where the water is impounded for distribution. We may reasonably look forward to an extension of similar benefits to the metropolis, by the same engineer, whose energies are now directed to an ex-

amination of the pure fountains of Wales, from whence the future supply of water to the great city is likely to be derived. A work of so gigantic a character may be looked upon as problematical, but when it is known that six or seven millions of money would be sufficient for its execution, I can see no reason why an undertaking of so much consequence to the health of London should not ultimately be accomplished.

In leaving this subject, I cannot refrain from an expression of deep regret at the loss which science has sustained through the death of one of our Vice-Presidents, the late Professor Hodgkinson. For a long series of years he and I worked together in the same field of scientific research, and our labours are recorded in the Transactions of this and other Associations. To Mr. Hodgkinson we owe the determination of the true form of cast-iron beams, or section of greatest strength; the law of the elasticity of iron under tensile and compressive forces; and the laws of resistance of columns to compression. I look back to the days of our joint labour with unalloyed pleasure and satisfaction.

I regret to say that another of our Vice-Presidents, my friend Mr. Joseph Whitworth, is unable to be present with us through serious, but I hope not dangerous, illness. To Mr. Whitworth, mechanical science is indebted for some of the most accurate and delicate pieces of mechanism ever executed; and the exactitude he has introduced into every mechanical operation will long continue to be the admiration of posterity. His system of screw threads and gauges is now in general use throughout Europe. We owe to him a machine for measuring with accuracy to the millionth of an inch, employed in the production of standard gauges; and his laborious and interesting experiments on rifled ordnance have resulted in the production of a rifled small arm and gun which have never been surpassed for range and precision of fire. It is with pain that I have to refer to the cause which deprives me of his presence and support at this meeting.

#### TELEGRAPHY.

A brief allusion must be made to that marvellous discovery which has given to the present generation the power to turn the spark of heaven to the uses of speech; to transmit along the slender wire for a thousand miles a current of electricity that renders intelligible words and thoughts. This wonderful discovery, so familiar to us, and so useful in our communications to every part of the globe, we owe to Wheatstone, Thomson, De la Rive, and others. In land telegraphy the chief difficulties have been surmounted, but in submarine telegraphy much remains to be accomplished. Failures have been repeated so often as to call for a Commission on the part of the Government to inquire into the causes, and the best means of overcoming the difficulties which present themselves. I had the honour to serve on that Commission, and I believe that from the report, and mass of evidence, and experimental research accumulated, the public will derive very important information. It is well known that three conditions are essential to success in the construction of ocean telegraphs—perfect insulation, external protection, and appropriate apparatus for laying the cable safely on its ocean bed. That we are far from having succeeded in fulfilling these conditions is evident from the fact that out of twelve thousand miles of submarine cable which have been laid since 1851, only three thousand miles are actually in working order; so that three-fourths may be considered a failure and loss to the country. The insulators hitherto employed are subject to deterioration from mechanical violence, from chemical decomposition or decay, and from the absorption of water; but the last circumstance does not appear to influence seriously the durability of cables. Electrically, India-rubber possesses high advantages, and, next to it, Wray's compound and pure gutta-percha far surpass the commercial gutta-percha hitherto employed; but it remains to be seen whether the mechanical and commercial difficulties in the employment of these new materials can be successfully overcome. The external protecting covering is still a subject of anxious consideration. The objections to iron wire are its weight and liability to corrosion. Hemp has been substituted, but at

present with no satisfactory result. All these difficulties, together with those connected with the coiling and paying out of the cable, will no doubt yield to careful experiment and the employment of proper instruments in its construction and its final deposit on the bed of the ocean.

Irrespective of inland and international telegraphy, a new system of communication has been introduced by Professor Wheatstone, whereby intercourse can be carried on between private families, public offices, and the works of merchants and manufacturers. This application of electric currents cannot be too highly appreciated, from its great efficiency and comparatively small expense. To show to what an extent this improvement has been carried, I may state that one thousand wires, in a perfect state of insulation, may be formed into a rope not exceeding half an inch in diameter.

#### PATENT LAWS.

I must not sit down without directing attention to a subject of deep importance to all classes, namely, the amount of protection inventors should receive from the laws of the country. It is the opinion of many that patent laws are injurious rather than beneficial, and that no legal protection of this kind ought to be granted; in fact, that a free trade in inventions, as in everything else, should be established. I confess I am not of that opinion. Doubtless there are abuses in the working of the patent law as it at present exists, and protection is often granted to pirates and impostors, to the detriment of real inventors. This, however, does not contravene the principle of protection, but rather calls for reform and amendment. It is asserted by those who have done the least to benefit their country by inventions, that a monopoly is injurious, and that if the patent laws are defended, it should be, not on the ground of their benefit to the inventor, but on that of their utility to the nation. I believe this to be a dangerous doctrine, and I hope it will never be acted upon. I cannot see the right of the nation to appropriate the labours of a lifetime, without awarding any remuneration. The nation, in this case, receives a benefit; and assuredly the labourer is worthy of his hire. I am no friend of monopoly, but neither am I a friend of injustice; and I think that before the public are benefited by an invention, the inventor should be rewarded either by a fourteen years' monopoly, or in some other way. Our patent laws are defective, so far as they protect pretended inventions; but they are essential to the best interests of the State, in stimulating the exertions of a class of eminent men, such as Arkwright, Watt, and Crompton, whose inventions have entailed upon all countries invaluable benefits, and have done honour to the human race. To this Association is committed the task of correcting the abuses of the present system, and establishing such legal provisions as shall deal out equal justice to the inventor and the nation at large.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

I must not forget that we owe very much to an entirely new and most attractive method of diffusing knowledge, admirably exemplified in the Great Exhibition of 1851, and its successors in France, Ireland, and America. Most of us remember the gems of art which were accumulated in this city during the summer of 1857, and the wonderful results they produced on all classes of the community. The improvement of taste, and the increase of practical knowledge which followed these exhibitions, has been deeply felt; and hence the prospects which are now opening before us in regard to the Exhibition of the next year cannot be too highly appreciated. That Exhibition will embrace the whole circle of the sciences, and is likely to elevate the general culture of the public to a higher standard than we have ever before attained. There will be unfolded almost every known production of Art, every ingenious contrivance in machinery, and the results of discoveries in science from the earliest period. The Fine Arts, which constituted no part of the Exhibition of 1851, and which were only partially represented at Paris and Dublin, will be illustrated by new creations from the most distinguished masters of the modern school. Looking forwards, I venture to hope for a great success and a further development of the



principle advocated by this Association, the union of science and art.

## CONCLUSION.

In conclusion, my apologies are due to you for the length of this address, and I thank you sincerely for the patient attention with which you have listened to the remarks I have had the honour to lay before you. As the President of the British Association, I feel that far beyond the consideration of merely personal qualifications, my election was intended as a compliment to practical science, and to this great and influential metropolis of manufacture, where those who cultivate the theory of science may witness, on its grandest scale, its application to the industrial arts. As a citizen of Manchester, I venture to assure the Association that its intentions are appreciated; and to its members, as well as to the strangers who have been attracted here by this meeting, I offer a most cordial welcome.

Amongst those present on the platform were the Bishop of Manchester, Lord Stanley, Professor Owen, Colonel Sabine, Sir Roderick Murchison, Professor Airy, Professor Rymer Jones, Professor Phillips, and many other distinguished men of science. There were also present the following delegates from other societies:—

Statistical Society of London: James Heywood, Esq., F.R.S.; Dr. Camps; Dr. Farr, D.C.L., F.R.S.; William Newmarch, Esq., F.R.S.

Institute of Actuaries, London: Samuel Brown, Esq., V.P.; T. B. Sprague, Esq., M.A.; William Newmarch, Esq., F.R.S.

Hull Royal Institution: Thomas Thompson, Esq.; James Oldham, Esq., C.E.

Philosophical and Literary Society, Leeds: Rev. Thomas Hincks, B.A., V.P.; P. O'Callaghan, Esq., B.A., Hon. Sec.

And two foreign associates:—

Dr. A. T. Kupffer, Director of the Central Physiological Observatory, St. Petersburg; Dr. Tefen, Med. et Phil., Doctor of Botany at the University of Greisswald, Lecturer on Natural History, and Librarian at the Royal Agricultural Academy, Eldena, Prussia.

## THE NEW PLAY AT THE HAYMARKET.

It is a refreshing event in an age like the present, in which so much alike of our enthusiasm or our dislikes is simulated and factitious, to meet with a genuine, spontaneous, and irrepressible burst of popular disapprobation, such as that which attended the first performance of the new comedy, "The Soft Sex," at the Haymarket Theatre on Saturday last. The first act dragged on to an end without interest, and with some muttered threatenings of the storm that was brewing. The close of the second act was the signal for loud manifestations of disapprobation; and though some applause greeted the conclusion of the third and last act, it was very slight, and the interruptions during its performance were numerous and marked. An unfortunate expression in the third act, that was made use of by the hero, amounting in signification to "I have had enough of this," was responded to with marked, though not very flattering, sympathy and approbation on the part of the audience. After the fall of the curtain Mr. Charles Mathews appeared, to apologize for the piece, of which he professed himself the parent, though we fancy it is only to the merit of an adaptation he can lay claim, as we are under the strong persuasion that we have seen many of the leading points in the play in a recent French drama. In deprecating rash judgment, the author asserted that those who came on Monday would not recognize the piece as the same; and it is only due to him to state that it was much improved on that night, and its reception was tolerably encouraging. But with all improvements that can be devised, it will remain an impotent drama; and we advise alike Mr. Mathews and Mr. Buckstone to accept as graciously as they can a defeat which, in the multitude of their various successes, they can well afford to overlook. It is necessary to give some idea of the plot of this comedy, which is intricate in detail, though simple enough in conception. It consists

of a description of the unhappy results that attend any effort on the part of the gentler sex to usurp to themselves the manners or attributes, moral or social, of man. It is, in fact, one continual protest against "les femmes fortes." Mr. Boilever Biggins (Mr. Buckstone) and his brother-in-law Mr. Mandeville (Mr. Compton) have been left, by a brother dead in America, joint proprietors of a flourishing cotton factory in Lancashire; but with them is associated on equal terms a young fellow, the son of the brother in question. This young gentleman, when last heard of, was in California, and Mr. Biggins, while on a visit in America, puts a card in the newspaper to inform him of the inheritance that awaits him. Mr. Biggins is blessed with two young and charming daughters, Harriet and Julia (Miss Lindley and Miss Henrade), whom he has left, during his absence from home, under the charge of a cousin, Ida (Mrs. C. Mathews), a lady in whom great prudence and firmness are joined with gentleness and other feminine graces. Mr. Mandeville is enriched by the possession of a wife (Mrs. E. Fitzwilliam), whose masculine intellect, soaring far above the trammels of domestic duties, bathes itself in an atmosphere of most elevated philosophical imaginings, and leaves to her spouse the charge of all, even to the minutest points of domestic economy. From this cause Mr. Mandeville's time is much and not very worthily occupied; for in a household like his, domestics are only additional encumbrances, and he pathetically bewails the engagement of an extra servant, as simply bringing upon him another woman's work to do. At this stage, then, are we when Mr. Biggins brings with him from America a Miss Priscilla Cram (Mrs. Poynter), who is a ridiculously-dressed and altogether absurd strong-minded woman of the American school, whom he intends, in spite of Ida's protest, as a governess for his daughters. Beneath the charge of this lady, and with the hopeful example of their aunt ever before their eyes, the young ladies progress charmingly. They shoot, ride, and smoke like men, and one of them is entrapped into making a moonlight assignation, in order to elope with a swindling Irishman disguised as a Polish refugee. From this she is however prevented by the watchful care of the guardian Ida. In the last act matters are complicated, and two additions are made to this cheerful group who we may say are all gathered at Mr. Boilever Biggins's house attached to his cotton-mill at Stockport. These consist of the nephew, Solon Biggins (Mr. C. Mathews), who has received the card at California, and of Mrs. Columbia Cosmos Cook (Mrs. Wilkins), who has come on a visit to Mrs. Mandeville. Of all the strong-minded women assembled she is the worst. She has travelled alone twice round the world, and met with more adventures in her course than would occur to a dozen Ida Pfeiffers; shared Sheikh hospitality in Arabia; been confined in the harem of the Sultan, for what purpose it is hard to surmise; and taken prisoner and narrowly escaped scalping by the Choctaws. The house now becomes absolutely unbearable to Biggins and Mandeville, who assert their conviction that they are the only women in the house. The nephew, however, plays an important part on his arrival. He is possessed of a deed of gift, which secures to him the possession of the entire property, and which turns the two supposed partners out of the firm. The very house they are in becomes the property of Mr. Solon Biggins. The two old men try by turns to bully, to frighten, and to cajole their nephew, but they find that with true American astuteness, in law and in logic he is as much their superior as he is in comfort of position with regard to the property. Their efforts only annoy him, and causing him to think seriously of summarily ejecting them from the house, the strong-minded women lay their hands upon the untamed youth; one darts in his ears abstract questions of social rights and privileges, another offers to make him the possessor of a hand which has before now shot a tiger, and possibly gouged an enemy or whopped a nigger. But all are discomfited: the young ladies, whose chance would appear to be the best, find their advances to a flirtation met with a brusqueness and warmth which dismay them, and deter them from any subsequent approaches. The entire party retires at length discomfited, and the young

proprietor, goaded almost into madness by these continual assaults upon him, insists upon the whole party "clearing out" of the house in an hour. He then sits down to a cup of tea, which he makes for himself. While so occupied, the timid Ida enters, and commences a task of packing some linen which has to be removed. The box with which she struggles is too heavy for her, and he is obliged to assist her; in return for which she makes him a cup of tea much superior to that of his own "brewing." Ultimately, her winning ways in this short hour prevail over him, and he is tamed, requests her hand, and she consents to give it upon the express stipulation, for which there has been a hard struggle—that none of the household, not even the women, are to be dismissed from the house; the last clause being, if anything, more to the disadvantage of the lady than of the gentleman. The marriage is arranged, and in the warmth of his happiness Solon buries his deed of gift and accepts his uncles as partners. Thus, where the strong-minded women have met with defeat and mortification, a poor girl, strong only in her weakness and the natural instincts of her sex, triumphs.

The acting was, on the whole, respectable. Mr. Buckstone's part was not worthy of him. The female characters were all well sustained, but on Mr. and Mrs. Mathews fell the burden of the piece. This was well sustained, but their dialogues were prolonged till they became wearisome. There were a few points which told admirably, but they were only few to redeem a piece which was, on the whole, dull and sadly short of incident. Several of the characters, those of Miss Cram and the cosmopolitan Mrs. Cook, were sadly below the dignity of comedy,—were, in fact, only fitted for burlesque or broad farce. We think, then, that this piece is calculated to enhance Mr. Mathews's reputation neither as an actor nor as an author.

## FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

FLORENCE, August 24.

It is an old joke against the Florentines, that whenever a passing visitor to the banks of the Arno expresses any measure of discontent with any of the meteorological conditions of the country, he is forthwith assured that the absence of absolute perfection complained of in the case in question is wholly unprecedented. If a week of wet weather in May destroys picnics, and makes the Cascine fatal to hats and bonnets, such extraordinary weather was never before seen in Tuscany! If an icy north wind comes swooping down from Monte Morello in March, begetting a large family of rheumatisms by its ill-assorted union with a hot cloudless sun, the true Florentine cockney swears that the oldest inhabitant never remembered such a phenomenon to have occurred before! Like the boy, therefore, who was always crying "wolf," people are inclined not to believe us in this matter, when we are really speaking the very truth.

And it is absolutely the truth, that such a summer as the present, has not been matched at Florence within the memory of man. The heat has been something portentous; but the drought which has accompanied it has been a far more serious evil. The sanitary condition of the city has been excellent; indeed, as a general rule, Florence is never in more perfect health than in hot weather, and a somewhat more complete idleness than usual, a somewhat longer siesta, and an increase in the price of ice to the extent of a couple of centimes, or, per Bacco! in some cases to a farthing on the pound, have been the worst consequences of having the thermometer at upwards of ninety in the shade.

The absence of rain, however, for more than three months is a far more serious affair. The wheat crop is too early here to have suffered by this want of water; and it has been a very fine one. But first we heard that there was no hope for the maize, or "gran turco," as it is called here. This was utterly burned up. Next, the olive began to drop parched from the trees, and the oil for the year may be considered as lost. And this is a far

more serious loss than it may at first sight appear to those unacquainted with the habits and ways of Italian domestic life. Not only does the loss of the olive crop involve both to the landowner and the peasant cultivator the loss, in the neighbourhood of Florence at all events, of the most sure and reliable portion of the money-returns from the lands, but the consequent high price of oil inflicts a vast amount of daily privation on all the poorer classes of the people.

Next came from the hill country of the districts of Lucca and Pistoia still worse tidings. The chestnut-trees could not ripen their produce. The fruit did not swell, but began to shrivel up and drop from the trees; and, in those chestnut-covered mountains, the nut is to the population what the potato is,—or rather was, thank God!—to the Irish. A failure of the chestnut crop means, to the thickly-scattered villages of those picturesquely-wooded mountains, simply starvation. There are large districts where scarcely any other food is known; and even a partial failure of the crop entails a terrible amount of misery and suffering. It is to be hoped, that rain may yet come in time to save, in some measure at least, this most important product.

The vintage was of great promise this year; and rain now or within a few days would yet be in time to save the grape from destruction, and give us a fair abundance of wine. As for the less important fruits we must do without them, or at least those must who do not choose to pay prices unheard of here for the small supplies which are brought to market.

But as far as easy-going, ease-loving Florence herself is concerned, the evils of the rainless summer have been more felt in anticipation than in reality. We look on the all but dry bed of the Arno; we hear that the poor people at Fiesole have to pay sixpence or eightpence the barrel of ten gallons for water to drink; we ask each other from day to day if the wells still hold out, and hear every day of some which have gone dry; but for the present we have enough to drink. We have not enough for our gardens; and these are becoming browner and browner from day to day, and the leaves of the large forest trees are falling as if it were the end of November.

Some time ago the friars of the Convent of the Santissima Annunziata brought out their celebrated miraculous picture of the Virgin, painted by St. Luke, the exposition and adoration of which is held to be of sovereign efficacy for obtaining rain in time of drought, or fair weather in time of flood. And as the friars watch very carefully the signs of the weather, and from long traditional practice are very good judges of them, and as they take good care not to bring out their miracle-working pictures till they have shrewd reason for thinking that the experiment will answer, I had great hope when the picture was brought out that the desired result would follow, as it usually does. But this time the weather-wise fathers were at fault; and the handiwork of St. Luke seemed to avail, but to disperse the promisingly gathering clouds. Of course the priests both regular and secular were in no wise nonplussed. They had their explanation of the failure ready-made to their hands, and it was one which in every way perfectly suited them. Of course, as long as the Church and the august head of it are suffering persecution at the hands of a godless nation and government, no blessing can be hoped even from the intercession of the Virgin. The absence of rain, which is causing the earth to fail in bringing forth her increase, is a direct and unmistakably evident punishment for the spoliation of the states of the Vicar of Christ. The Archbishop of Pisa, Cardinal Corsi, who has on several occasions made himself specially notorious and obnoxious to the Tuscans by his intense enmity to the present government and the new order of things, has issued a long address to his clergy, explaining in this sense the calamity of the drought. It is possible that, in some part of Italy, the Archbishop might, by the dissemination of such assertions, effect some portion of the mischief he is so anxious to bring about. But his seed will fall on stony ground in Tuscany, and will not succeed in doing any great harm; the more so in that, provokingly enough for the traffickers in the decrees of Providence, the first shower, which has at last come to

gladden our eyes, wearied with the unchanging glare of more than three months' duration, chanced to fall almost immediately after the episcopal denunciation of the Divine wrath. One thing at least was clear, the people said, as to the dispensation of Heaven in this matter, and that was that his Eminence the Cardinal Archbishop knew nothing about the matter!

It was on the 21st that the first welcome drops fell; and the aspect of the city at the time gave the measure of the greatness of the need of them, and of the intense anxiety with which they were expected. The streets filled with people, as gradually the cloud-banks began about midday to climb up towards the zenith, and thousands of anxious faces were turned skywards. Then came a preliminary clap of sudden thunder, like a salvo of joy-guns to announce the happy event. Then, slowly at first, the great heavy drops began to spot the parched and oven-like flag-stones; and at once a shout of rejoicing went up, which was echoed back from one quarter of the city to another!

Since that we have had one or two other showers. We still are anxious for more; but the weather seems to be broken. The extreme heat has passed, and it is hoped that the long waited-for rain has come in time to save the vintage and the chestnut crop; the latter probably, as far as the absolute misery occasioned by its failure is concerned, being the most important of all.

T. A. T.

AUGSBURG, August 29.

THE account which, in No. 159 of the *Literary Gazette*, your Florence correspondent gave of the State lottery, and of the mischievous consequences attending it, might serve, without a single word being altered, as a picture of the nature of the lottery system in Bavaria. The general arrangement, as well as all the minutiae of detail, tally exactly. The very names for the particular sort of ticket you want is the same in both countries; for the Italian decides on a "terno" or an "ambo," and the servant-maid of Munich, or the peasant from the villages round Augsburg, go likewise to the ever-open office and declare also that it is an "ambo" or a "terno" that they intend to take. "Now," observes the writer of that Florence letter, "though fully aware that a hard-pressed finance minister can hardly be expected to look on the sources from which he draws his supplies with the critical eye of a moral philosopher, yet it does seem to me that a government . . . should not be content to tolerate so infamous a source of demoralization for a moment." And so, it seems, have thought some of the members of the Bavarian Chamber; for though the abolition of the lottery had often been mooted—seemingly, however, only in order to ward off attack—nothing was done in earnest till the present session, when the system and its demoralizing effects were so attacked and exposed, that, for very shame's sake, a change was agreed to. It did, indeed, always appear a glaring contradiction to see in all parts of the town boards announcing a lottery-office, and yet to know that in the same city new churches were erected in all parts, the former goodly number not having been deemed sufficient. This lottery system did certainly not harmonize well with the monasteries and convents which anew had been called in existence, not only in the capital, but all over the country. The sandalled monk and the fantastically-dressed lottery-boy formed assuredly a strange contrast. But at last it has been resolved to find a less objectionable source of revenue. There was, it must be confessed, some difficulty in abolishing some of the offices connected with the system, they having become the property of, and a source of revenue to, the persons who held them by rights which were not to be denied. Others, again, had been bestowed in years long past on some fortunate favourite, who, by farming out the office, was thus in the receipt of a goodly revenue. It has now been proposed to abolish the State lottery in three years' time. In the first year one-third of the collecting houses are to be struck off the list; in the second year, another third; and finally, the last remaining are to cease to exist. The revenue derived from the lottery year after year was immense. When its activity is at an end, therefore, some new tax must be devised to supply the deficit which will occur.

Talking of taxes reminds me of some curious data which I obtained during my stay here. They show what a thoroughly good-tempered, quiet, willingly-led and easily-ruled people the Bavarians are. Bavaria, like England, is blessed with an income-tax, and a tax on capital beside. The tax on income being calculated and the sum put down, which is, namely, the lawful amount to be demanded of you; the tax-gatherer adds to this a percentage of two shillings in the pound, which the authorities call a "Beischlag." Whether this is added to pay for the cost of collecting I know not. Then comes however another addition to the sum marked as the income-tax. This second percentage varies; it may be two shillings and sixpence in the pound, or it may be three shillings, according to circumstances. Thus it is never known beforehand with exactitude what the tax-collector will demand; and for this reason:—The provinces are divided into "Kreise," or Circles, and in each of these Circles is annually held, on the same day throughout the whole country, a meeting composed of men of property and standing, who take into consideration what moneys will be wanted for the roads, bridges, lunatic asylums, &c., of that particular circle for the ensuing year. Such meetings last about a fortnight, when again all on the same day are again dissolved throughout the whole country, and the members return to their homes. Now, according as the wants of the Circles may be manifold or otherwise, so will be the extra percentage levied for the second time on the said income-tax. If the roads are in a bad state, or a mad-house wants an extra wing, the rate-payer will surely be mulcted of a shilling in the pound more than last year. Yet no one seems to find anything extraordinary in such mode of proceeding. The thing is, every one is so accustomed to be dependent on this or that government office for one thing or other, that such bureau is looked up to with a sort of awe, and all that issues from it considered too high to be questioned.

But it is the police whose meddling fingers are everywhere and in everything. The bill announcing "Lodgings to let" must be stamped by the police before it can be hung up. It is to the police that the cook or nursery-maid or errand-boy must go to announce the name of the family he or she is about to enter; and it is to the police you must give immediate information if you take a second-floor in Broad Street, or change that again for a third-floor back in Short Street. Nothing shows more clearly how slow a Bavarian is, in any sense whatever, to "go ahead" than the circumstance that all the stupid antiquated formalities about the right of domicile are still retained with the same tenacity as ever. In Prussia, where, until very lately, they made fuss enough about your passport; in Saxony, and even in much-decried Austria, the old senseless technicalities are abolished. You may go from one end of the broad Austrian empire to the other without being once tormented by inquirers about your age, business, or religion; not so in Bavaria. The former *Polizei Staat* has not yet quite shaken off its old skin. This remaining fragment will be excoriated, no doubt, in time, but it will cost a pang to do so: for the mere thought of parting from this last remnant of the past wounds to the quick the sensibilities of the genuine "Beamer."

As these formalities respecting the permission to stay in a town will sooner or later only be known as belonging to "the things that were," it is worth while to give an account of them here; and I shall do this in detail, and with all exactitude. Did I not do so, and were the account not to bear on its face the impress of perfect truth, you would not credit that such senseless regulations could possibly exist in the heart of Germany in the year of grace 1861.

On taking a lodging, your landlord is obliged, within twelve hours, to announce your arrival to the Commissary of Police of the quarter in which his house is situated, from whom he receives a printed paper divided into different rubrics, which you, the new lodger, are required to fill up—to wit, as follows:—First, you are to write your Christian and family name, your age, religion, profession, or occupation. Then, if married or single; if unmarried, you are to put down in what rank of life your parents are (of course your parents may be in Brazil, Iceland, or China—no matter; the wiseacres still



demand that you put down who they are). Then your birthplace, your dwelling-place, and the name of your country. Then the *reason of your stay*. Then what you means of subsistence are; in other words, how you manage to get the wherewithal to live. Then how long you intend to stay in the place. If you have a passport or other document. *If you have been in the said town often, or not before*. Finally, the names of those persons who are with you. When this is all written—and if you are not minute the paper will be sent back for you to fill it up with more exactitude, with street and number, and the floor you live on added—your landlord signs his name, and he is made responsible for the truth of what you have written. This document you are to take within twenty-four hours to the police, and there you get your permission to remain for so many weeks or months in the town. On leaving your lodging, the landlord is obliged to notify your departure to the authorities within twenty-four hours of your leaving. Should he or you fail in any of the above ordinances, either may be fined in a sum from one to twenty dollars, or, according to circumstances, be put into prison. When you get a permission to remain in a town you receive a paper nearly similar to the one you have already filled up, but filled up for you from your former statement. In addition, however, to the cautions and threatened penalties printed on the back, an extra paragraph informs you that the given permission may be recalled at any moment, and that it is now only given on condition that your behaviour be unexceptionable.

Of every traveller who stays for some days at his inn, a like account of himself is exacted; but generally the waiter or *valet de place* fills up the paper as he thinks best; putting you down as Protestant or Catholic just as he fancies you are most likely to be, making you thirty, forty, or fifty years old, according to your looks, and of course closing all by asserting you to be a "Rentier." Thus, at least, the good landlord of the "Drei Mohren" acted for me. This shows, if anything were wanted to do so, how perfectly useless the whole thing is; but it is a sad tax on a man's patience to be thus questioned when he knows all the while that it leads to nothing. A friend of mine, who thought that the detail of birthplace, place of domicile, &c., was unnecessary, wrote on the paper simply "England" as his home. This was not considered exact enough, and he was desired to specify where he came from more circumstantially. So he wrote that he came from the city of Exeter, Bayswater Parish, Northern Division, District Letter A, in the County of York. Then they were satisfied. "That was precise," they said, "and now if anything happened to him they would know where to find his relations." You may suppose what rooms-full there must be of thick folio volumes, in order thus to inscribe the name, age, birthplace, business, religion, &c., &c., of any individual, great or small, who comes into or passes out of the town. It is such a scene as Dickens alone could worthily paint which daily is to be witnessed at the different bureaux of the police-office. Here scores of servants are crowding towards a bar, which rails off a bottle-nosed under-official busily occupied in inscribing in the aforesaid folios the weighty and interesting fact that Molly Schropp is no longer as kitchenmaid at Frau Plump's—who was a dreadful virago—but is now in service at the *Ministerial Rath's* widow Frau von Repps. And so on by scores, and fifties, and hundreds, every morning of his life. Then there are travelling journeymen going for work to Munich, Wurzburg, Berlin, or Vienna, waiting there by the hour till they can get their passport-book visé'd, and so be off; for of course it would be impossible to have officials enough to attend to such swarms of applicants. So there sits the poor old clerk, who has grown grey and stupid with years of such mechanical, senseless employment, and sands paper after paper, handing it to the watchful applicant, who, with eager hand, seizes it in a moment and rushes off, glad that his turn has come at last. On the table beside the clerk stands his snuff-box and his coarse blue cotton pocket-handkerchief folded up ready for use. The pinch of snuff, taken at frequent intervals, is the only solace the old fellow has at his heart-sickening work.

The Bavarian has undeniably many excellent qualities, and he is as favourable a specimen of German

character as any that may be found. But the slowness and sluggishness which characterizes him when bodily labour is concerned will be found also if he is required to keep pace with the rest of the world in all that may come under the denomination of "Progress." He will always be a quarter of a century behind the rest of Germany. "Slowly, slowly," is the motto which Bavaria should have chosen for herself.

In time the police regulations which are described above will certainly be changed, but this will only be done ten or twenty years after every vestige of similar formalities has disappeared in all other parts of Germany. By that time Bavaria will awake to the absurdity of retaining them, the matter will then be well weighed, and examined from every possible point of view; every contingency which human ingenuity could suppose *might* happen when a change shall be made will also be taken in consideration; and finally, when all reasoning on both sides of the question has been exhausted, a resolution will be come to, that the old trammels are no longer to be considered in force. May we all live till the prophecy be fulfilled!

## MUSIC AND DRAMA.

### MR. ALFRED MELLON'S CONCERTS.

Mr. Mellon's Promenade Concerts still continue the attraction of the season. Thursday evening was a Mozart night, the first part of the programme being entirely taken from works of that composer. It included the entire Symphony No. 2, in G minor; the favourite "In diesen Heiligen Hallen," from the "Zauberflöte;" and the well-known "Non più andrai," in which Mr. Sims Reeves made his first appearance at these concerts; Pianoforte Concerto No. 6, in C, performed by Miss Julia Woolf; the Scena, "Gli Angui Inferni," by Mlle. Parepa; and the Overture to "Le Nozze di Figaro." The second part of the Concert was miscellaneous. In addition to what is, after all, the great feature of these concerts—the magnificent style in which the instrumental music is rendered—the greatest attraction was, of course, the reappearance of Herr Formes. We notice that Mr. Mellon has secured Mme. Vachetti, from La Scala, at Milan, who will make her first appearance next Thursday evening, which is set apart as an "Italian night."

### MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.

A new piece, under the same title as an opera by Scribe and Alary, namely, "La Beauté du Diable," has been produced at the Théâtre du Palais Royal. It is in three acts and several tableaux, and is by MM. Eugène Grangé and Lambert Thiboust. The intrinsic worth of the piece is spoken of as exceedingly slight, but the accessories of stage decorations and machinery, together with the quick disguises and changes of costume, have procured for it a very marked success. The plot represents the *Roi des Enfers*, accompanied by his factotum Belphegor, seeking on earth the beauty he knows he has lost, and, with the object of finding it, converting himself into all sorts of extraordinary characters and figures, including those of inspector of young ladies' boarding-schools, waiter at a café, and dandy at a German Baths. The quickness with which some of the disguises are effected is spoken of as marvellous; and among the changes it may give an idea how completely the thing is carried out, that one of the characters dresses up to represent Leotard, who is still performing his acrobatic feats in London; and not content with a dress which makes the likeness such as almost to defy detection, the very exercises which Leotard performs on the trapeze are gone through by his imitator. The Paris press utters indignant censures upon the degradation of the stage; but the manager knows that the people countenance and like these exhibitions, and so long as this continues the case there is little hope of their being discontinued.

Her Majesty's Commissioners of the International Exhibition of 1862 have received a communication from M. Meyerbeer, stating that, in compliance with

their request, he will compose a March for the opening ceremony.

Sadler's Wells Theatre opens to-night with "The Hunchback," Mr. Phelps playing *Master Walter*, and Mrs. Bowers, an American lady of considerable reputation as a *tragédienne*, appearing as *Julia*. An efficient working company, consisting of old favourites and new faces, has been engaged to support Mrs. Bowers, whose artistic capabilities are looked forward to with hopeful anxiety by the supporters of this well-known theatre.

The Théâtre des Galeries Saint-Hubert, at Brussels, has reopened with the production of the new comedy by MM. About and De Najac, entitled "Un Mariage de Paris," and with a comic opera, "La Clé des Champs." At the Théâtre du Cirque, in the same city, is being performed a drama in five acts, by M. Alexandre Dumas, "Le Gentilhomme de la Montagne."

A funeral monument in bronze has been erected at St. Petersburg to the memory of Mme. Bosio, by her husband, M. Kindavelonis. It was executed at Florence and taken over to St. Petersburg. It is spoken of as a meritorious work, and its inauguration was attended by large crowds. It is said, however, to be the intention of the husband of the late charming singer to transport her remains to Paris, to the cemetery of Père la Chaise.

A new drama in five acts, entitled "Cora, ou l'Esclavage," has been brought out at the Ambigu-Comique. It is by M. Jules Barbier, and has met with a most marked success. The scene is laid in Louisiana and in Paris, and the heroine is played by Mlle. Jeanne Essler, late of the Vaudeville. Cora is the daughter of a rich planter, and is educated as his legitimate offspring and heiress, surrounded by every luxury and refinement, and attracting the admiration of all by her delicacy and grace during her stay in Paris. On her return to Louisiana, the truth is painfully ascertained by her that she is the daughter of a slave; and though betraying not the least sign of negro taint, is herself, nevertheless, unworthy to associate with Europeans. As a crowning misery, her father is ruined, and ultimately Cora is sold as a slave. In the termination, however, the author has had regard for the harrowing that the feelings of the audience have undergone during his five acts, and his heroine is ultimately released from slavery, restored to her possessions, and suitably married.

M. Hector Berlioz, the French composer, has been giving his annual concert at Baden, with an unusually full and effective orchestra. Among the works produced were Mendelssohn's celebrated concerto for the violin, which was performed by M. Sivori, and enthusiastically applauded; and Beethoven's fantasia for piano, chorus, and orchestra. In this sublime fantasia the pianoforte was played by Mme. Escudier-Kastner, pianiste to the Emperor of Austria. The brilliance of touch displayed in the performance by this lady secured for her tremendous applause from the company, which was led off by the Queen of Prussia, and M. Berlioz warmly congratulated her on her admirable execution. The concert was held in the well-known large Salle de Conversation.

The Théâtre Italien at Paris has announced the singers engaged: the following is the list:—Prime donne soprani: Mme. Rosina Penco, Mlle. Mario Battu, Mme. Volpini. Prime donne contralti: Mme. Alboni, Mlle. Trebelli. Prime donne comprimari: Mme. Tagliafico, Mlle. Vestri. Primi tenori: Mario, Tamberlik, Belart, Brini. Tenor comprimario: Capello. Primi baritoni: Badiali, Benvenuto, Delle Sedie. Primi bassi: Tagliafico, Caponi. Primo buffo: Zucchini. Secondo Parti: Castelli, Mme. Grimaldi, &c. Direttore d'orchestra: M. Bonetti.

The Concert of the Association of Choral Societies of the Seine, held in Paris under the direction of M. Delafontaine, President of the Society, has been a great success. The overture to "Guillaume Tell," and several other orchestral pieces, were admirably performed and enthusiastically received. M. Carré, of the Opéra Comique, is spoken of in high terms by the Parisian press, for his execution of the solos entrusted to him.

## MISCELLANEA.

James Sant, whose many refined portraits of women and children have made his name a household word, has been selected for the honours of the Royal Academy this year; and this tribute to his genius cannot fail to give entire satisfaction to the public and his fellow-labourers in the profession. He has worked long and well, and the honour he has received is rather the decoration of an accomplished and successful artist, than the reward which helps and encourages the struggling son of genius climbing up the steep ascent of fame.

The Panorama at Leicester Square has been enriched by the addition of a fine view of the City and Bay of Naples, admirably painted by Mr. H. C. Selous, with the assistance, as far as the ships of war are concerned, of Mr. W. A. Knell, Sen. This painting is upon the whole one of the finest panoramic effects we have ever seen, and it is difficult to know which to admire most, the beauty of the painting as a work of art, or the fidelity with which it reproduces every feature of the lovely scenery it depicts. The view of Messina, and that of the prospect at sunrise from the summit of the Righi, are still exhibiting, and the whole constitutes a highly attractive spectacle, and one that will well repay a visit.

We understand that Messrs. Saunders, Otley, and Co. have in preparation a biography of Mr. Cobden, which is probably to make its appearance about next spring. If it were well executed, and without any strong party bias on either side, such a work would be likely to prove most useful. There are some arguments against contemporary biography, but they are more than counterbalanced by the fact, that no name is so adapted to point a political moral as that of some living statesman. Richard Cobden is eminently a representative man;—representative of nearly all that is excellent in the commercial portion of the community, as well as of all that is most fraught with danger to the advance of genuine civilization. Few biographies would be more instructive to the student of contemporary politics.

Mr. John P. Knight, Secretary of the Royal Academy of Arts, has written to M. Keyser, Director of the Académie Royale des Beaux Arts at Antwerp, on behalf of the English artists present at the late Artistic Congress at that city, requesting him to convey to the Burgomaster their hearty appreciation of the distinguished hospitality which has been afforded them during the whole of the fêtes.

During the vacation at the Museum of Practical Geology, Jermyn Street, some important additions have been made to the wall decorations in the Hall. These consist of inlaid slabs of polished granites, porphyries, marbles, and alabaster, and are likely to attract some attention, as some of the specimens have never before been employed in the Arts. The Museum reopens to the public on Tuesday next.

The Council of the Surrey Archaeological Society have determined to assist in promoting the proposed excavations of the site of Chertsey Abbey, which has been recently purchased by one of their local secretaries, Mr. T. R. Bartrop, and have opened a public subscription for the purpose. A large and curious collection of tiles from this site are at the Architectural Museum, South Kensington; and an equally large and very complete collection are in the possession of the Surrey Society. The excavations are now being carried on with great spirit under the superintendence of Mr. Martin Shurlock, a local antiquary, and during the last few days some interesting remains have been turned up, or rather exposed,—a tile-paving supposed to be a part of the cloisters, a stone coffin, leaden chalice and paten, gold coin, gold ring, &c. An account of the previous excavations has already been published in the Transactions of the Surrey Archaeological Society, and the present appear to promise an even richer harvest of antiquities. Subscriptions are received by the Society's bankers, Messrs. Cox and Biddulph, Charing Cross; and by the Honorary Secretaries in London and at Chertsey.

Law is sometimes, slow as it proverbially is, faster than the tortoise-like moving Board or Council to whom public works are committed. It thus happens that the magnificent pictures bequeathed by Turner to the nation are in peril—the peril of being claimed by his heir-at-law, whose property they will become under the painter's will, unless they are speedily removed to the National Collection, although the walls there are already covered. Probably some of the Spanish pictures will be dislodged to give place to Turner's works—a difficulty with which the authorities at the gallery are well qualified to deal. This occasion, and the time when the nation will have Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair," an immense picture, added to its treasures, makes it imperative that the Royal Academy should at once look out for new quarters.

All those who have noticed the chary manner in which the valuable and distinctive order of the Victoria Cross is conferred, will allow that at least those who do wear it have well deserved the decoration. And yet they count up, these English heroes, these paladins of honour and duty, in the face of all obstacles and dangers! Already Mr. Desanges, a worthy artist of the noble task he has set himself, has painted forty-seven of the brave, handsome faces of our countrymen, who have dared to do the work which entitles them to the decoration, and has exhibited them at the Victoria Cross Gallery. Let us hope that this collection, which we may consider is only kept together by the circumstance of the several portraits forming one attractive exhibition, may continue so on more permanent ground. The works are well executed, and not unworthy a room in a National Collection; under any such changes as death or pecuniary interest bring about, we rely upon official and public spirit preventing this gallery being scattered.

M. Guizot is preparing for publication a work on Italy. It is understood that the views that will be advocated by this chief of the old *doctrinaire* party, will be strongly opposed to the present development of Italy. According to M. Guizot, the policy observed by France to Italy, between the years 1815 and 1848, was the only correct and rational line of conduct for the Government; and the revolutionary ideas of Italian unity, which the present Emperor encourages, are antagonistic to the policy of all great epochs in the French nation. It is painful to see this statesman and historian thus stultifying himself for purposes of self-laudation; and we trust that the rumoured contents of the volume will prove, on its appearance, to be false, or at least exaggerated.

The beautiful ribbon flower-bed, fifty feet in length by seven in breadth, is still the one leading attraction of the season at Kew Gardens. The flowers are now exceedingly brilliant, being at the climax of their autumnal beauty. All the great centres of English industry are sending agents and artists to copy it, as a design and pattern for part of the goods they are making for the Great Exhibition of next year, viz.:—Manchester—prints, chintz, draperies, &c.; Coventry—ribbons; Kidderminster—carpets; Glasgow—muslins, shawls, &c.; Yorkshire, coloured table-covers; Belfast—damask table-linen, &c.; Nottingham—lace; Macclesfield, Derby, and Spitalfields—silks, embroideries, &c.; Dublin—mixed fabrics; Paisley—Scotch goods and window muslins; Bradford—moreens and damasks; Clerkenwell—artificial flowers; and the Potteries—china and porcelain. A lady of title has ordered to be manufactured for her fifty yards of stair-carpeting, and a drawing-room carpet, the border of which will be an exact imitation of the above, and the centre copies of many of the circular flower-beds in various parts of the Gardens.

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12 Tea Spoons.....	0 16 0	1 2 0	1 5 0	1 7 0
6 Egg Spoons, gilt bowls.....	0 10 0	0 13 6	0 15 0	0 15 0
2 Sauce Ladles.....	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 9 6
1 Gravy Spoon.....	0 6 6	0 10 0	0 11 0	0 12 0
2 Salt Spoons, gilt bowls.....	0 3 4	0 4 6	0 5 0	0 5 0
1 Mustard Spoon, gilt bowl.....	0 1 8	0 2 3	0 2 6	0 2 6
1 Pair of Sugar Tongs.....	0 2 6	0 3 6	0 4 0	0 4 6
1 Pair of Fish Carvers.....	1 4 0	1 7 6	1 10 0	1 12 0
1 Butter Knife.....	0 2 6	0 5 6	0 6 0	0 7 0
1 Soup Ladle.....	0 10 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	1 0 0
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Total.....	9 10 9	13 10 3	14 19 6	16 4 0

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